



History up to Date

A Concise Account of

The War of 1898 between the United
States and Spain

Its Causes and The Treaty of Paris

By

William A. Johnston

New York

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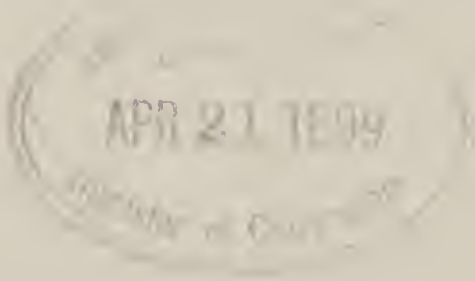
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P R E F A C E

THIS book is a concise account of the birth of a new era in the United States. It is a record of the dying moments of the Monroe Doctrine, the spirit that for more than one hundred years inspired the civic body born in the Revolution of the American Colonies of Great Britain near the end of the last century. It is the narrative of the entrance of a new spirit into that civic body while in the throes of war with Spain. This book contains a succinct account of the War of 1898 between Spain and the United States, the causes of the war, and the treaty by which it was ended,—the greatest war of a century, in its results if not in its events.

From a naval and military viewpoint, the Hispano-American War amounts to comparatively little. Its land battles, in other wars, would have been called skirmishes. Its naval battles were too unequal to fully demonstrate the utility and powers of resistance

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of modern armor-clads. In point of mortality on land and sea there has seldom been a less bloody war. Gianibelli's fireship sent from the beleaguered Antwerp against the Prince of Parma's bridge killed more men in one minute than were lost by both Spaniards and Americans.

This war, it is true, resulted in Spain being driven from the vicinity of the Americas and in the rich Philippine Islands being wrested from her grasp, but these results are mere incidents to the real outcome of the war. The war found the United States of America a thriving young republic, a healthy boy who had never been away from home; the war left the young republic one of the great powers of the world, a full-grown man gone forth in search for adventures.

The importance that the events of 1898 must necessarily have on the future history of the world is more than sufficient excuse for offering this book to the public. The colonial policy of the United States, the American influence in the far East, the drawing together of the two great Anglo-Saxon nations, Great Britain and the United States, must henceforth be leading topics in politics, literature, statesmanship. It is not the importance of the events of the war

Preface

themselves, but their relation to the destiny of the United States and to the history of the century to come, that renders their accurate preservation valuable to every patriotic citizen of the nation that has just been born again.

Some of the facts contained in this volume have already found many readers under the caption "History up to Date" in the "Evening Telegram," but much new matter has been added, and the whole work carefully revised and to a large extent rewritten. The author's thanks are due the "New York Herald" for the use of photographs collected by its war correspondents for illustrative purposes.

W. A. J.

NEW YORK, January 15, 1899.

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CHAPTER I

WHEN AND WHY THE WAR BEGAN

WAR between the monarchy of Spain and the republic of the United States began about the end of the month of April, 1898. A formal declaration of war was made by Spain on Sunday, April 24. The Congress of the United States the next day, at the request of President McKinley, passed a bill declaring that a state of war had existed between the United States and Spain from and including April 21, 1898.

Before these formal declarations both nations had been expecting and preparing for hostilities. There had been no love lost between the two countries for many months. A United States war-ship had been blown up in the harbor of Havana, arousing the people of the United States almost to fury. President McKinley had announced his intention of intervening to end the war Spain was waging against the

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rebels in Cuba. This had aroused the wrath of the people and government of Spain.

The causes which led to the war, summarized briefly, were : —

Spain's cruel methods of waging war on the Cuban insurgents, who had many relatives and sympathizers in the United States.

Causes of the War The imprisonment and killing of American citizens and the destruction of American property in Cuba.

The blowing up of the United States battle-ship "Maine" in the harbor of Havana, Cuba.

American indignation at the system of reconcentration put in practice in Cuba by General Weyler, which resulted in many non-combatants being starved to death.

Great damage to American trade with Cuba and serious losses to American merchants as a result of the insurrection which Spain seemed powerless to suppress.

The Hispano-American war has been called a war of sentiment and a war of humanity, but *A Matter of Dollars* it cannot be denied that to a certain extent it was a matter of dollars. While undoubtedly the principles of liberty for which their forefathers fought had much to do with the desire of the people of the

When and Why the War Began

United States to see Cuba freed from the dominion of Spain, their interest in the matter was by no means an unselfish one.

The failure of Spain to suppress the rebellion begun in Cuba in 1895 put the government of the United States to considerable direct and indirect expense. Large amounts were expended in policing the Atlantic and Gulf coasts to prevent filibustering expeditions which had been fitted out in the United States from getting away from American ports.

The Congress of the United States in May, 1897, appropriated \$50,000 to be expended by the American consuls in Cuba for the relief of American citizens on the island whom the war had reduced to abject poverty. In addition to this it was estimated that the war had resulted in the destruction of American property to the value of \$10,000,000.

To these direct expenses laid upon the United States were added other and greater expenses or losses attributable to the state of war existing in the island. The extensive trade that existed between the United States and Cuba before the war began, shrank almost to nothing. There were no indications that Cuban trade would improve until the Cubans were

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conquered or the Spaniards driven from the island. Many business houses in the United States with branches in Cuba or with large interests there, unable to collect their accounts, were forced to assign.

The sugar crop in Cuba, which in 1895 had been valued at \$70,000,000, for the season of 1896-7 amounted to only \$14,000,000. The tobacco product of normal times, about \$15,000,000, had shrunk to \$3,000,000. Trade with the United States had suffered to a still greater extent. Before the insurrection began, the annual imports from Cuba into the United States amounted to \$75,000,000, but after the war began they fell off to less than one million dollars. Before 1895 the United States had been exporting to Cuba every year goods valued at more than \$30,000,000. In 1896 the exports from the United States were hardly \$7,000,000.

With such a condition of affairs the business men of America were naturally desirous of seeing the Cuban question speedily settled once and for all. They saw better business opportunities with a "Cuba Libre" than with a Cuba burdened by Spanish tax-gatherers and bound by tariffs, restrictive except with Spain.

CHAPTER II

AMERICAN INTEREST IN CUBA

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, on his first voyage in 1492, discovered the island of Cuba, over which Spain and the United States four centuries later came to blows. The Spaniards called the island in succession Juana, Fernandina, Santiago, and Ave Maria, but the name by which the Indians knew it before the advent of the Spaniards was the name that survived.

The island, with several small islands along its coasts, contains about forty-five thousand *Some Facts about Cuba* square miles. It is about seven hundred and thirty miles long and averages about seventy miles in width. It lies almost due east and west a little to the south of the peninsula of Florida. Havana, the capital, on the north coast, is the principal city. Other cities on the north coast are Bahia Honda, Mariel, Cardenas, Matanzas, and Neuvas. On the south coast are the cities of Santiago de Cuba, Cienfuegos, and Guantanamo.

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Richly blessed with mineral and vegetable products, despite an unhealthy tropical climate, Cuba for many years before it had been laid waste by war was a veritable treasure-house for Spain. Copper mines, forests of mahogany, groves of oranges and coffee plantations, helped swell the coffers of Spanish grandees, and many Cuban families amassed great wealth.

Sugar and tobacco have, however, always been the chief sources of Cuba's wealth. A large proportion of the peasantry found employment in the cane fields. Havana tobacco and Havana cigars became known the world over.

The law of contiguity made it to be expected that the interests of the United States and Cuba should be closely allied. In many relations the republic and the island were more closely bound together than Cuba was to the mother country. While it took days to reach Cuba's capital from Cadiz, from Key West to Havana was a sail of only a few hours. Many citizens of the United States went to Cuba to engage in trade. Many natives of Cuba became residents of the United States. The United States sent Cuba things to eat and wear ; Cuba sent the United States tobacco and sugar.

Always jealous of European interference or

American Interest in Cuba

influence on this side of the Atlantic, it was only natural that the young republic should early look with covetous eyes toward Cuba. As far back as 1823, when the Holy Alliance threatened to aid Spain in reclaiming her revolted colonies in the Americas, strong declarations were made by the United States. In 1848, when the South was anxious to acquire more slave territory, President Polk offered Spain ten million dollars for Cuba, but Spain refused to part with the island.

Various propositions looking to the purchase of Cuba were thereafter advanced from time to time, the most recent being the offer of an international syndicate, but all of them were without result. The attitude of the United States since the middle of the century can be summarized thus : —

The people openly sympathizing and surreptitiously aiding the Cubans in their efforts to gain freedom ;

The government, virtually resenting Spain's rule and war in Cuba, but actually endeavoring to prevent filibustering expeditions being fitted out in the United States.

More than one President, while criticising Spain's course in his messages to Congress,

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took stern measures to prevent United States citizens from aiding the Cubans. Such was the situation when in 1895 there was begun in Cuba an insurrection, the legitimate outgrowth of a series of efforts on the part of Cuba to follow the example of other Spanish colonies in America.

CHAPTER III

THE REBELLIONS IN CUBA

FOR two centuries and more after Columbus discovered America Spain gradually gained control by conquest of a large portion of the Western Hemisphere, but when the tide turned her American possessions passed from her more rapidly than she had won them. Florida, Mexico, and South America slipped from her grasp, until, in 1898, she held only Cuba and Porto Rico.

Spain's hold on Cuba ever since 1820 had been precarious. When South America's *Revolutions frequent* Washington, General Bolivar, freed South America, efforts had been made to include Cuba, but unsuccessfully. From that time on every few years, in particular from 1848 to 1854, a revolution was attempted.

A few years before the rebellion in the United States, when the slave States foresaw the need of more votes in Congress, a movement began in the Southern States of the Union, looking toward the annexation of Cuba.

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The island, rich in sugar and tobacco, slave territory, too, would have been valuable to the South's ambitions. Narciso Lopez, with a citizen of Kentucky named Crittenden, led one expedition from New Orleans into Cuba, but it was a failure, and there the matter ended.

The most important rebellion in Cuba, prior to 1895, was the one Céspedes began in 1868, which lasted ten years. With Céspedes were associated General Maximo Gomez and General Quesada. A provisional government for the Cuban republic was formed in 1869. Céspedes became President, and Quesada commander-in-chief of the Cuban army. The latter, toward the end of the ten years' fighting, was succeeded by General Thomas Jordan, who had been on General Beauregard's staff in the Confederate army.

The Cuban rebellion of 1868 was planned in New York, and the rebels received much aid from residents of the United States. The Washington government did not, however, recognize the Cuban republic, although some of the South American republics did.

Many filibustering expeditions were fitted out in the United States, and out of one of these arose the famous "Virginius" affair.

The Rebellions in Cuba

The “*Virginus*,” flying the stars and stripes, with a party of filibusters on board, was captured by a Spanish war-ship in British waters, near Jamaica. The vessel was taken to Santiago, on the south coast of Cuba, and fifty-three of the prisoners taken were shot in the public square, some of them after ten-minute trials.

As Spain had no right to seize the “*Virginus*” in British waters, a British man-of-war hurried to Santiago. Her commander announced his intention of bombarding the city if another prisoner was shot. More British and some American war-ships arrived, and the Spanish authorities delivered the survivors of the “*Virginus*” expedition into their hands.

This rebellion was ended in 1878 by a treaty, after the Cubans had been greatly weakened by privation and lack of ammunition.

During this rebellion General Calixto Garcia had been captured and sent to a Spanish prison. Escaping, he came to New York in 1880, where, with José Marti, he planned another revolution. They went to Cuba, but after six months decided the country was not ready to revolt. In 1884 General Gomez and General Maceo visited the United States and en-

History up to Date

deavored to obtain aid in freeing Cuba, but unsuccessfully.

This practically ended the rebellions in Cuba until February, 1895, when the revolutionary movement began which led to war between Spain and the United States.

CHAPTER IV

THE INSURRECTION OF 1895

OPPRESSED by Spain, unrepresented in Madrid, with Spanish officers enriching themselves by extortion in Cuba, with no native Cuban holding any position of importance in the insular government, the Cubans, early in 1895, plotted another revolt from Spain. The revolutionists established headquarters in New York. The president of the revolutionary party was José Martí, the secretary Gonzalo de Quesada, and the treasurer Benjamin F. Guerra. Prominent in this Cuban Junta was Tomas Estrada Palma, who later was made the delegate of the Cuban provisional government to the United States.

The leaders of the revolution were men of education and ability. Martí, who had been *Leaders of* twice banished from Cuba, was a *the Cubans* doctor of laws. He had held a university professorship, had written books, and had been consul in New York for several of the South American countries. Gonzalo de

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Quesada was a graduate of Columbia University, and a practising lawyer. Benjamin F. Guerra was a wealthy merchant of New York.

Marti, with General Maximo Gomez, left New York for Cuba in the first week of February, 1895. Insurrectionists in the island had been informed of their coming and were only waiting for their arrival to acknowledge General Gomez as commander in chief of the insurgent forces. General Julio Sanguily headed the rebels in Matanzas province, General Moncada the rebels of the eastern provinces, and General Calixto Garcia commanded still another force. The uprising came five days before the end of February, the insurgent forces in various parts of the island taking the field on the same day. A declaration of Cuban independence was issued on Feb. 24, 1895.

No sooner had the revolution begun than filibustering expeditions from the United States started, landing in Cuba arms, ammunition, and supplies, and even reinforcements for the Cuban army. The "Competitor," the "Dauntless," the "Silver Heels" and several other coasting vessels made repeated trips to Cuba. The "Competitor" was

The Insurrection of 1895

the only one of these vessels ever captured, and so helpless did Spain seem to be in defending the coasts of Cuba that Captain "Johnny" O'Brien, one of the most daring of the filibusters, declared that if it was not for the precautions taken by the United States he would advertise regular dates of sailing.

The success of these expeditions, particularly that of the "Silver Heels" in October, 1897, aroused much bitter feeling in Spain. One of the Madrid newspapers asserted that "the hypocritical complicity and notorious stupidity of Mr. McKinley's officials serve as a screen to actions that constitute an offence and an attack on our sovereignty in Cuba." In reply to this Mr. John D. Long, Secretary of the Navy, pointed out that the United States had expended about \$2,000,000 in efforts to stop filibustering.

While the government of Spain doubtless realized that the United States was doing all that it could be expected to do to stop filibustering, the landing of each new expedition in Cuba added fuel to the flames of anger that was beginning to be felt toward the United States by the press and people of Spain.

CHAPTER V

WEYLER AND RECONCENTRATION

It was not long after the Cuban declaration of independence, in February, 1895, that Spain began to realize that this rebellion was likely to prove much more difficult to suppress than any that had gone before it.

Spain, it is true, had more troops in Cuba than the insurgents were able to muster and equip, but the insurgents fought with a desperation that made them dangerous foes.

Cubans, everywhere seemed to regard the revolution headed by Marti as the final effort to tear off the yoke of Spanish oppression. From all parts of the West Indies and North and South America, where there were Cubans, contributions poured into the treasury of the Cuban Junta in New York. Cubans of all degrees, down to the poorest cigar-makers in Key West and Tampa, gave a generous tithe of their incomes for fitting out filibustering expeditions and buying munitions of war.

Weyler and Reconcentration

In the attitude of the United States, Spain also found cause for alarm. Just about a year after the revolution began the United States Senate passed a resolution recognizing the Cubans as belligerents and offering the friendly offices of the United States through the President to Spain in recognizing Cuban independence. The House of Representatives about six weeks later passed a similar resolution. President Cleveland, however, ignored these resolutions, and nothing more was done.

The action of House and Senate had, however, indicated plainly the trend of public opinion in the United States, and stirred Spain to renewed activity against the insurgents, leading indirectly to the policy of reconcentration.

The actual carrying out of this policy devolved on General Valeriano Weyler, who had been made Captain-General of Cuba; that is, the Military Governor. Weyler was without mercy toward the insurgents. "War is no picnic," he said.

When the Spaniards, unable to crush the insurgents, were losing troops daily by illness and skirmishes, the insurgents were daily gaining in numbers, were adding to their equipment, and were drawing on the plantations for supplies.

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To cut off the food supplies from the insurgents, it was decided to concentrate the *Reconcentra- pacificos* — those peasants who were *tion ordered taking no part in the war—into cer-* *in Cuba.* tain limits, in order that the crops they might raise would not go to feed the rebels.

Circles were drawn around the cities, into which the peasants were herded, and forbidden to raise crops. Failing to accomplish the desired end, the circles were drawn smaller, and the peasants thus reconcentrated became the reconcentrados.

Forbidden to maintain themselves, dependent on the cruel mercies of the Spanish soldiery for their food, the condition of the reconcentrados soon became such as to stir the sympathy of the United States in their behalf.

CHAPTER VI

ATTITUDE OF UNITED STATES

DESPITE reports sent out from Havana and Madrid during the year 1896, of insurgents defeated in battle and provinces pacified by the Spanish soldiery, the people of the United States knew better. Many young Americans of adventurous spirit went to Cuba and fought with the insurgents. The tales they told on their return of insurgent victories and Spanish cruelties awakened much sympathy with the Cuban cause. Cuban refugees who reached the United States related terrible tales of the brutality of the Spanish troops. Despatches and letters from newspaper correspondents in Havana and in the field with the insurgents threw still more light on the subject.

The diminution of the volume of trade between the United States and Cuba also proclaimed the fact that the rich island was being made desolate. But for the fact that the whole attention of the United States politically was devoted to financial problems, the war with

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Spain might have been dated two years sooner than it was. The Republican National Convention, assembled in St. Louis in June, 1896, declared itself as follows : —

“ The government of Spain, having lost control of Cuba and being unable to protect the lives and property of resident American citizens or to *Political Platforms* comply with treaty obligations, we believe the government of the United States should actively use its good offices to restore peace and give independence to the island.”

As far distant from the Republican party as it had ever been since the days of slavery and antislavery arguments, the Democratic party on the Cuban question took a somewhat similar stand. The Democratic Convention, assembled in Chicago on July 9, 1896, to nominate a Presidential candidate, declared in its platform —

“ We extend our sympathy to the people of Cuba in their heroic struggle for liberty and independence.”

In the heat of the battle between free silver and sound money, the affairs of Cuba were temporarily lost sight of, although all the time the insurgents were waging determined warfare.

With the triumph of McKinley, in November, 1896, the attention of the United States

Attitude of United States

began to revert to Cuba. Even President Cleveland, conservative to the utmost in touching on the Cuban problem, in a message to Congress in December, 1896, gave a strong hint to Spain that if peace in Cuba was not restored, she might look forward to the United States being led to interfere.

When President Cleveland went out of office there had been claims against Spain aggregating more than \$10,000,000 filed with the Department of State in Washington. These claims were for property destroyed or confiscated during the war against the insurgents, and for personal damages. American citizens in Cuba had been imprisoned, had been cruelly used, had even been murdered. Notable among cases of this sort were those of Dr. José Delgado and Dr. Ricardo Ruiz.

Delgado was maltreated by Spanish soldiers. His head was cut open by sword-blows. He *Instances of Cruelty* received a bullet in his thigh. Some of the men employed on his estate were killed. His property was ruined. Through Consul-General Williams, Dr. Delgado filed a claim of \$200,000 against Spain for the treatment he had received at her hands. The case of Dr. Ricardo Ruiz was even more

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shocking. Arrested and thrown into jail at Guanabacoa, he was kept there thirteen days, and then died. An investigation set on foot by Consul-General Lee proved that Ruiz had been cruelly murdered by his jailers. The widow of Dr. Ruiz, with her young children, came to the United States. They were in abject poverty, but friends cared for them. A claim of \$75,000 was filed against Spain.

Most of the property claims related to damage done to sugar and tobacco plantations *Indemnity* owned by citizens of the United *Demands* States. There came a time when the Spanish Government issued an edict against the grinding of cane. The rebels retaliated by burning crops. The citizens of the United States suffered — and filed claims.

Indemnity claims made by one nation against another are at the best difficult and tedious to collect. To collect indemnity from a bankrupt nation is infinitely harder. Besides, even if Spain had had the money, inflamed as public spirit was against the United States, she had no desire to, nor intention of, paying any claims.

Thus it was that, when the year 1898 opened, Spain occupied the position of an impudent debtor toward the United States.

CHAPTER VII

EFFORTS TO AVERT WAR

IT stands to the credit of nineteenth-century civilization that both the United States and Spain made strenuous efforts to avert war. While "jingo" in both countries and newspapers clamored for war, the heads of the governments planned for peace. President McKinley in the spring of 1897 called upon the United States consuls in Cuba for reports on the condition of United States citizens and reconcentrados in Cuba. In April, 1897, the Queen Regent of Spain decreed certain reforms for Cuba, relating to the elections and to the reconcentrados. A better spirit seemed to prevail between the two countries. When the tomb of General Grant in Riverside Park, New York, was dedicated on April 27, 1897, Spanish war-ships joined in the naval parade.

The promised reforms in Cuba, however, failed in effect. With the aid of the Spanish soldiery gross frauds were carried out in the Cuban elections. It had

*Recall of
Weyler*

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been the intention to let the reconcentrados return to their homes, but in most cases their homes had been destroyed. Their condition was little if any bettered. Starvation existed in all parts of the island.

Then came a change in Spain. The Premier, Señor Canovas, was assassinated and Señor Sagasta succeeded him, taking office on Oct. 2, 1897. Six days after Señor Sagasta's installation, Captain-General Weyler was recalled from Cuba and General Ramon Blanco appointed in his stead. This change was strongly approved by the people of the United States, but in Spain the result was hardly in the interest of peace. General Weyler on his return was welcomed by great crowds who cheered him as a hero and openly sympathized in the bitter feeling he manifested toward the United States, where he considered the responsibility for his recall lay.

The recall of General Weyler and the appointment of General Blanco as Captain-General of Cuba was the first step toward
Autonomy
a Failure a plan of autonomy. This plan, as submitted in November, 1897, by Señor Moret, the Minister for the Colonies, and approved by the Queen Regent, empowered Cuba to be

Efforts to Avert War

the regulator to a large extent of her financial and political affairs. It provided for universal suffrage and established the residents of the Antilles on an equal footing, so far as the government was concerned, with the residents of Spain.

While theoretically this plan of autonomy appealed strongly to many of the Cuban leaders, it practically had little effect. After its adoption it was asserted that the only autonomists in Cuba were those who got offices by it. Spain had frequently before made promises to Cuba and had just as frequently broken them. While universal suffrage had been granted, the army practically controlled the elections.

Still another thing that prevented the success of autonomy was the fact that the vast majority of the Cuban insurgents had made up their minds that they would be content with nothing less than the absolute freedom of the island. It was upon this platform Bartholomew Maso had become President of the so-called Cuban republic.

Altogether, the efforts of Spain to give Cuba something Cuba did not want resulted in dismal failure.

CHAPTER VIII

DESTRUCTION OF THE "MAINE"

RIOTING in Cuba had resulted in the United States battle-ship "Maine" being ordered to Key West, Florida, in December, 1897, and in instructions being issued to her commander, Captain Charles D. Sigsbee, to be prepared to sail for Havana at any time that Consul-General Fitzhugh Lee deemed the presence of a United States war-ship expedient.

President McKinley had been several times on the point of ordering the "Maine" to proceed to Cuba, but the beginning of another year found the relations of the United States and Spain apparently on a much more satisfactory basis. It was then decided to send the "Maine" to Havana "on a friendly mission," and the United States Minister in Madrid, General Stewart R. Woodford, was instructed to notify the Spanish government to that effect. Secretary Long, in an interview relative to the object of the "Maine's" visit to Havana, said : —

Destruction of the “Maine”

“Matters are now in such a condition that our vessels are going to resume their friendly calls at the ports of Cuba and go in and out just as the vessels of other nations do. The ‘Maine’ will go in a day or two on just such a visit.”

In accordance with this plan the “Maine” arrived in the harbor of Havana, Jan. 25, 1898. Shortly afterward Spain despatched the cruiser “Vizcaya,” commanded by Captain Eulate, to pay a friendly visit to the port of New York. In Havana the usual calls were exchanged between Captain Sigsbee and the Spanish authorities. While the American seamen were not permitted to go ashore in Havana for fear of riots, the relations of the officers of the warship with the Spanish officials were not marred by any unpleasant incidents.

All the greater was the surprise and consternation in the United States when on the night of Feb. 15, 1898, the “Maine” was *Blowing up of the “Maine”* blown up while at anchor in Havana harbor. Two hundred and sixty-four of the crew lost their lives, and two of the officers. There is every reason for believing that the battle-ship was destroyed by a submarine mine under her keel, exploded by a Spanish officer or officers. There is no reason for be-

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believing that General Blanco was cognizant of the plot.

Revolting in its conception, horrible in its execution, was this plan to avenge fancied wrongs against the Americans. The great majority of the "Maine's" crew passed into the unknown without a second to say a prayer. All the officers escaped unhurt except Lieutenant Friend W. Jenkins and Assistant Engineer Darwin R. Merritt. Jenkins could have undoubtedly saved himself, but he turned back to get important papers belonging to the ship, and was trapped in the sinking hulk. It was days and weeks before many of the bodies were recovered.

Too stupefied by the enormity of the crime for the first few hours to realize what it meant, the increasing wrath of the American nation was checked temporarily by the first despatch from Captain Sigsbee, cool-headed in the midst of calamity. His despatch said: "Public opinion should be suspended until further report." His calm counsel was recalled in the days that followed, but it was not long before "Remember the 'Maine'!" was the slogan of vengeance.

Nations hastened to express their sympathy

Destruction of the “Maine”

with the United States. Among the first was *Sympathy of Nations* Spain. In Havana the awfulness of the disaster wrought a temporary change in the public feeling. The theatres were closed and the flags about the Captain-General's palace were put at half-mast.

The government at Washington was in receipt of many telegrams and cable messages of condolence from European rulers before twenty-four hours had elapsed.

In Madrid the day following the “Maine” disaster, Señor Moret, the Minister of the Colonies, sent a letter to General Stewart L. Woodford, the United States Minister, in which, on behalf of the Spanish Cabinet, he expressed sympathy. Señor Du Bosc, the Spanish Chargé d’Affaires in Washington, hastened to express his condolence to the State Department.

CHAPTER IX

THE "MAINE" INVESTIGATION

AT the direction of the Secretary of the Navy, Rear-Admiral Montgomery Sicard, commanding the North Atlantic squadron of the United States on April 17, 1898, appointed a court of inquiry to investigate and report on the destruction of the battle-ship "Maine."

This court was composed of: Captain W. T. Sampson, commanding the battle-ship "Iowa;" *The Court of Inquiry* Captain French E. Chadwick, commanding the cruiser "New York;" Lieutenant Commander W. P. Potter, executive officer of the "New York." Lieutenant Commander Adolph Marix, executive officer of the United States receiving ship "Vermont," who had formerly been executive officer of the "Maine," was named as judge advocate of the court of inquiry.

Although this court was appointed two days after the blowing up of the "Maine," its report was not made until nearly six weeks later. A court of inquiry appointed by the Spanish au-

The “Maine” Investigation

thorities in Havana also took about the same length of time. The general belief among the American people was that it was the work of a Spanish mine, and as the weeks passed by this belief became conviction, even before the court of inquiry had reported. The Spanish people and press, on the other hand, maintained that it was an accident.¹

Captain Sigsbee had had an anonymous warning. A circular printed in Spanish had been slipped into his hand in a crowd. *Captain Sigsbee warned* It was a tirade against the Americans and their “rotten squadron.” On the margin of this circular was written : “ Look out for your ship ! ”

¹ The way in which Spain looked upon the destruction of the “ Maine ” was set forth in a semi-official note issued Feb. 16, 1898, which read : —

“ The news of the disaster to the ‘ Maine ’ has caused a painful impression in Madrid. It was at first feared there had been some act of imprudence to which the catastrophe was attributable. Afterward, as the details arrived, the fears dispelled took the form of feelings of sympathy and sorrow for the misfortune which has occurred. The Captain-General, the commandant of the Arsenal, the sailors of the cruiser ‘ Alfonso XII., ’ the crews of the merchant vessels, and all the available forces hastened to succor the injured. The government has expressed to Minister Woodford the regret it feels at the catastrophe, more especially that it occurred in waters within Spanish jurisdiction.”

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On the other hand, a theory found weight among experts and naval officers that the explosion was internal. There was a possibility of spontaneous combustion in the coal bunkers. The question before the court of inquiry was this: "Was the explosion external or internal?" It was realized that if the plates of the "Maine's" hull were found bent inward, that the explosion was external and therefore could not have been accidental.

Two stenographers were employed taking the testimony of the "Maine" officers and crew who had survived the disaster, divers *The Explosion external* hired to examine the wreck, experts who had examined what was left of the battle-ship, persons who had had inklings of Spanish plots in Havana. Sessions of the court were held in both Key West and Havana. Divers employed to recover the bodies of sailors from the battle-ship were also examined as witnesses.

It remained for a young ensign to bring forward conclusive proof that the explosion that destroyed the "Maine" came from the outside, leaving the inference that it was the explosion of a Spanish mine or torpedo. Ensign Powelson, a specialist in naval construction,

The “ Maine ” Investigation

discovered that the keel plates of the “ Maine ” had been forced upward until they projected out of the water.

This evidence was not officially made public until the court of inquiry made its report, but the publication of Ensign Powelson’s discoveries resulted in no one in the United States giving much credence to the theory of an internal explosion. In addition to the discoveries of Mr. Powelson, the investigation of the court of inquiry developed the fact that some boilers which at first it was thought might have exploded, were not in use at the time. It was also shown that excelsior, which formed the packing of the forward magazine of the battle-ship, was not even charred.

CHAPTER X

THE DE LOME INCIDENT

IT was somewhat remarkable that diplomatic relations between the United States and Spain did not suffer an immediate wrench over the "Maine" disaster, since hardly a week before an incident had become public which had resulted in the resignation of the Spanish Minister in Washington. Señor José Canalejas, formerly Spanish Minister of Justice and the proprietor of a newspaper in Madrid, had visited the United States and Cuba for the purpose of informing himself of the true condition of affairs. While Señor Canalejas was in Havana he received a letter from the Spanish Minister in Washington, Señor Don Enrique De Lome. An agent of the Cuban Junta purloined this letter from the Hotel Inglaterra in Havana, and after Señor Canalejas had returned to Spain a copy of the letter was given to the American press and to the authorities in Washington.

In this letter Señor De Lome not only made stringent criticisms of President McKinley's

The De Lome Incident

message to Congress, but he referred to the President as "weak and catering to the masses, *An Insult to McKinley* and besides a low politician, who desires to leave a door open to me and to stand well with the jingoes of his party."¹

This letter was made public on Feb. 8, 1898. Señor De Lome admitted privately that he was the author of it, but it nevertheless put the government in Washington in an awkward position. Such an insult to the Chief Executive could hardly be passed over unnoticed, but it was hardly dignified for the government to take cognizance of a private letter undoubtedly obtained by surreptitious means.

¹ Señor De Lome in this letter wrote: —

"The message has undeceived the insurgents, who expected something else, and has paralyzed the action of Congress, but I consider it bad.

"Besides the natural and inevitable coarseness with which he repeats all that the press and the public opinion of Spain has said of Weyler, it shows once more that McKinley is weak and catering to the rabble, and besides a low politician, who desires to leave a door open to me and to stand well with the jingoes of his party.

"Nevertheless, as a matter of fact, it will only depend on ourselves whether he will prove bad or adverse to us. I agree entirely with you, — without a military success nothing will be accomplished there, and without military and political success there is always danger that the insurgents will be encouraged, if not by the government, at least by part of the public opinion."

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Señor De Lome, however, forestalled action by either his own government or the United States by promptly cabling his resignation to Madrid. When the United States Minister in Madrid intimated to the Spanish government that Señor De Lome had become *persona non grata* to the United States, he was informed that the resignation of Señor De Lome had already been accepted. Señor De Lome in his despatch to Madrid stated that he was the author of the published letter, and that in consequence he found his position untenable. Premier Sagasta in the Cabinet Council commended him for "so bravely admitting" the authorship of the letter.

The Spanish government made Señor Du Bosc, Secretary of the Legation, its chargé d'affaires in Washington, and named Señor Polo de Bernabe to succeed De Lome. Minister Woodford insisted that the Spanish government make official disclaimer of the De Lome letter, and in a few days he was informed that the Cabinet entirely condemned the views expressed.

With this disclaimer the incident ended, but shortly afterward the imprudent remarks of Lieutenant Sobral, the naval attaché of the

The De Lome Incident

Spanish legation in Washington, were the *Imprudence* subject of official inquiry. Three or *of Sobral* four days after the "Maine" was destroyed, Lieutenant Sobral in an interview expressed the belief that the explosion was an internal one, resulting from the lax discipline observed on the ship. He said also that if war should come, the knowledge he had acquired as naval attaché would be of great value to his government.

It was then recalled that Lieutenant Sobral had visited many of the fortifications along the Atlantic coast, and that only a few months before his extensive inquiries at Charleston had resulted in permission to visit the fortifications there being withdrawn. This convinced the United States that Spain had been quietly gathering all the information about the Atlantic coast defences she could. The Spanish chargé d'affaires in Washington hastened, however, to inform the State Department that Lieutenant Sobral had been detached as naval attaché in January, and that therefore his remarks were only those of a private citizen. There was nothing left for the United States but to accept this explanation.

CHAPTER XI

PREPARATIONS FOR WAR BEGUN

ALTHOUGH no open breach followed the De Lome and Sobral incidents, despite the official regret expressed by Spain for the "Maine" disaster, within a week after the destruction of the "Maine" both the United States and Spain began preparing for war. To outward appearances friendly relations between the two nations were still maintained.

General Woodford, the United States Minister to Madrid, on February 24 gave a banquet in honor of the newly appointed Minister to the United States. Nearly all the members of the Spanish Cabinet attended, and all drank enthusiastically to "Peace," the toast proposed by the host. Spain had, however, already started a fleet of war-ships to the Canaries on its way to Cuba. The United States had begun mobilizing the North Atlantic squadron at the Dry Tortugas. A bill to provide additional regiments of artillery was hurried through Congress, and men from Western

Preparations for War Begun

posts were being rushed to the Atlantic coast fortifications.

Both nations began to scour the markets of the world for war-ships, at first not so much *Hostile Preparations* with the intention of purchase as of obtaining an option for as long a period as possible. The United States began sending guns and ammunition to its Atlantic coast and Gulf ports, particularly to Key West, Florida. Plans for extensive coal sheds at the latter place were also set on foot. The "Alfonso XIII." arrived at Havana with some Spanish troops, and the attention of Captain-General Blanco was devoted to strengthening the fortifications of the Cuban coast.

Meanwhile the United States was continuing to send food and other supplies to the starving Cubans, sometimes using naval vessels for the purpose, sometimes merchant vessels. Out of this arose an incident that threatened further complications in the relations of the United States and Spain.

The Spanish government gave United States Minister Woodford to understand that it *Lee's Recall asked for* would like the United States to recall General Fitzhugh Lee, the United States Consul-General to Cuba, and

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to stop sending relief supplies to Cuba in vessels of the navy.

Minister Woodford promptly communicated Spain's wishes to the State Department in Washington, and just as promptly the United States refused to comply with the wishes of the Madrid government.¹

When President McKinley's firm reply to Minister Woodford's despatch was received by the Spanish Cabinet, it hastened to withdraw its ultimatum in regard to the recall of General Lee and the sending of supplies. Minister Woodford was also assured that it had not been the intention of the Spanish government to offend the United States.

It was realized by the United States that *Millions* large sums of money would be needed *for Defence* for putting the defences of the country into better shape in the event of war with

¹ The following statement in regard to the case was issued in Washington : —

“The President will not consider the recall of General Lee. He has borne himself throughout this crisis with judgment, fidelity, and courage, to the President's entire satisfaction.

“As to the supplies for the relief of the Cuban people, all arrangements have been made to carry a consignment this week in one of the naval vessels, whichever may be the best adapted and most available for the purpose, to Matanzas and Sagua.”

Preparations for War Begun

Spain. Representative Cannon accordingly introduced into the House on March 7 a bill making an appropriation of \$50,000,000 for the national defence. The following day the House of Representatives passed this bill, 311 of the 356 Representatives voting for it, not one of those present dissenting. When the bill came up in the Senate, on March 9, seventy-six Senators were present and seventy-six "ayes" were recorded for the bill. Every Senator not present had one of his colleagues put him on record as favoring it.¹

The same day that the Senate passed the bill President McKinley signed it, and it became law. The passage of the bill was a triumph for President McKinley. Without making a pledge or a promise, the entire Congress, without a single objection, irrespective of party, had shown its confidence in him by placing in his hands fifty millions for defence.

¹ The bill was as follows : —

"Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives in Congress assembled : —

"That there is hereby appropriated out of any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, for the national defence and for each and every purpose connected therewith, to be expended at the discretion of the President and to remain available until June 30, 1899, fifty million dollars."

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The Navy Department, anticipating the *Plans of* passage of the bill, had laid plans for *the Navy* strengthening the navy in the following way : —

Immediate completion of negotiations for the purchase of foreign-built war-ships.

Issuance of orders to contractors for munitions for the magazines of men-of-war.

Execution of arrangements for large supplies of coal to be shipped to Key West.

Despatch of instructors to recruiting stations to enlist as many seamen, machinists, and petty officers as possible.

Formation of crews for the commerce destroyers “Columbia” and “Minneapolis.”

Hastening the completion of repairs on war vessels out of commission, and hastening the completion of new vessels under construction.

Formation of plans for transforming merchant ships into auxiliary cruisers.

CHAPTER XII

THE "MAINE" COURT'S REPORT

THE report of the naval court of inquiry appointed to investigate the destruction of the "Maine" was presented to the Congress of the United States on March 28. It was signed by all the members of the court, and contained these conclusions:—

First, that at the time of the explosion, the battleship "Maine" was lying in five and one-half to six fathoms of water.

Conclusions of the Court Second, the discipline aboard the ship was excellent; everything was stowed according to orders, ammunition, guns, stores, etc. The temperature at eight o'clock P. M. was normal, except in the after ten-inch magazine, and that did not explode.

Third, the explosion occurred at twenty minutes to ten o'clock on the evening of February 15. There were two explosions with a very short interval between them. The ship lifted on the first explosion.

Fourth, the court could form no definite opinion of the condition of the wreck from the divers' evidence.

Fifth, technical details of the wreckage, from which

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the court deduced that a mine was exploded under the ship on the port side.

Sixth, the explosion was due to no fault of those on board.

Seventh, opinion of the court, stating that the explosion of the mine caused the explosion of two magazines.

Eighth, the court declared that it cannot find evidence to fix responsibility.

This conservative report was a disappointment to many people in the United States. *Responsibility of Spain* The report, however, by inference, declared Spain guilty. The conclusion that the explosion was due to no fault of those on board was a complete vindication of the officers of the "Maine." The opinion of the court that the wrecking of the battle-ship was due to the explosion of a mine under the ship on the port side amounted to a declaration that Spain was responsible for the disaster. There were no mines in Havana except those controlled by the Spanish officers. With due precautions, it must have been impossible for a mine of power sufficient to wreck a battle-ship to have been placed without the knowledge and participation of one or more Spanish officers.

The “Maine” Court’s Report

In transmitting the report of the court of inquiry to Congress, President McKinley sent *Criticism of McKinley* with it a brief message. There were many who expected this message would advise some course of procedure against Spain. The world had been looking for a crisis to follow at once the presentation of the report. The conservatism of the President was manifest in his message, and he plainly showed that he was not to be driven headlong into war by the “jingo” of the United States.¹

¹ President McKinley in his message explained the visit of the “Maine” to Havana thus : —

“Some time prior to the visit of the ‘Maine’ to Havana harbor our consular representatives pointed out the advantages to flow from the visit of national ships to Cuban waters in accustoming the people to the presence of our flag as the symbol of good will and of our ships in the fulfilment of the mission of protection to American interests, even though no immediate need therefor exist. Accordingly, on the 24th of January last, after conference with the Spanish Minister in which the renewal of visits of our war vessels to Spanish waters was discussed and accepted, the Peninsular authorities at Madrid and Havana were advised of the purpose of this government to resume friendly visits at Cuban ports, and that in that view the ‘Maine’ would forthwith call at the port of Havana. This announcement was received by the Spanish government with appreciation of the friendly character of the visit of the ‘Maine’ and with notification of intention to return the courtesy by sending Spanish ships to the principal ports of the United States.”

After discussing the destruction of the “Maine” and sum-

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Ominous silence greeted the reading of the message in both House and Senate, and, after adjournment, many criticisms of the President were heard. Party lines seemed to have been laid aside. The conservatives, irrespective of party, rallied in defence of the conservatism of the President. The "jingo" began to discuss forms of the resolutions declaring war, which they declared it was their intention to present. In one or two places in the country the President was burned in effigy.

Happily wiser counsels prevailed, and the advantage of a conservative course soon became apparent.

marizing very briefly the report of the court of inquiry, President McKinley said : —

"I have directed that the finding of the court of inquiry and the view of this government thereon be communicated to her Majesty, the Queen Regent, and I do not permit myself to doubt that the sense of justice of the Spanish nation will dictate a course of action suggested by honor and the friendly relations of the two governments. It will be the duty of the Executive to advise Congress of the result, and in the mean while deliberate consideration is invoked."

CHAPTER XIII

DEMANDS MADE ON SPAIN

WAR was looked upon as a certainty in both the United States and Spain at the beginning of the month of April, 1898.

President McKinley, in transmitting the report of the United States court of inquiry to the Madrid government, demanded that reparation be made for the loss of the battle-ship "Maine." In addition he demanded :

First, That Spain shall send the reconcentrados back to their homes and permit the United States to *Armistice* aid in supplying them with the means of *demanded* sustaining life until normal conditions can be restored.

Second, That there shall be an armistice between Spain and Cuba, with the end in view of securing a settlement of the difficulties and the withdrawal of the Spanish forces from Cuba.

Third, In case of a failure of the Cubans and Spaniards to come to an understanding during the armistice, Spain to submit the entire matter to President McKinley as arbitrator, with the under-

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standing that he will decide in that event for the entire independence of Cuba.

Spain refused to recognize the right of the *Demands* United States to either indemnity or *refused* , apology for the loss of the “Maine,” and in regard to other demands, answered :

“Spain informs the government of the United States that General Blanco has revoked the bando relating to the reconcentrados in the western provinces of Cuba, — Matanzas, Santa Clara, Habana, and Pinar del Rio; that the Spanish government has placed at the disposal of the Governor-General the credit of 3,000,000 pesetas to the end that the country people return at once and with success to their labor.

“The Spanish government will accept whatever assistance to feed and succor the necessitous may be sent from the United States in accordance with the plan now in operation.

“Spain proposes to confide the preparations for an honorable and stable peace to the insular parliament, without whose concurrence the Spanish government would be unable to arrive at the final result, it being understood that the powers reserved by the Constitution to the central government are not lessened or diminished.

“As the Cuban Chambers will not meet until May 4, the Spanish government will not, on its

Demands made on Spain

part, object to a suspension of hostilities if asked for by the insurgents from the general-in-chief, to whom it will belong to determine the duration and the condition of the suspension.”

Diplomatic relations between Spain and the United States were now near the breaking point.

Consuls recalled Early in the first week in April orders were sent to the consuls and consular agents in Cuba to join Consul-General Lee in Havana and to be prepared to leave immediately. General Woodford, the United States Minister to Spain, also received instructions to be ready for his recall at any time. He responded by sending his family and most of his staff to Paris. American consuls in Spain were also notified that the break in diplomatic relations might be expected at any time.

The lighthouse tender “Fern” at Havana was now joined by the “Blake” and the “Bache,” which were sent with a view to providing transportation for American refugees.

The “Maine” wreck in the harbor of Havana had been abandoned by the United States government. Fast steamers had been despatched from Kingston, Jamaica, to ports on the south coast of Cuba, to take off Americans who desired to leave the island.

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It had been promised that President McKinley would send a message to Congress at noon *Message* on Wednesday, April 6. It was con-
delayed fidently expected both in the United States and in Europe that the message of the President would be the signal for war. Great was the consternation of the warlike Congress when it was announced, when Wednesday came, that the message of the President would be delayed. The ostensible reason given was that General Fitzhugh Lee, Consul-General to Cuba, had requested the delay.

This was accepted for a few hours as the real reason for the President's delay in sending his message to Congress; but it soon became known that the delay was to give diplomacy one more chance in the interests of peace.

CHAPTER XIV

ACTION OF THE POWERS

THERE was a remarkable scene in the Blue Parlor of the White House, in Washington, at noon on Thursday, April 8. Representatives of the six great Powers of Europe — Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, Italy, and Austria-Hungary — called in a body and were received by President McKinley. There were present Sir Julian Pauncefote, the British Ambassador, and his secretary; M. Jules Cambon, the French Ambassador, and M. Thiebaut, First Secretary of the Embassy; Dr. von Holleben, the German Ambassador, and the Baron Speck von Sternburg; Mr. Ladislaus Hengelmuller von Hengervar, the Austrian Minister; Count Vinci, the Italian Chargé d’Affaires, and M. de Wollant, the Russian Chargé d’Affaires.

Sir Julian Pauncefote, as spokesman, presented the following note in French, the *Note from the Powers* official language of international communication: —

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“The undersigned representatives of Germany, Austria-Hungary, France, Great Britain, Italy, and Russia, duly authorized in that behalf, address in the name of their respective governments a pressing appeal to the feelings of humanity and moderation of the President and of the American people in their existing differences with Spain.

“They earnestly hope that further negotiations will lead to an agreement which, while securing the maintenance of peace, will afford all necessary guarantees for the re-establishment of order in Cuba.

“The Powers do not doubt that the humanitarian and purely disinterested character of this representation will be fully recognized and appreciated by the American nation.”

To this note of the Powers, President McKinley replied : —

“The government of the United States recognizes the good-will which has prompted the friendly communication of the representatives of Germany, Austria-Hungary, France, Great Britain, Italy, and Russia, as set forth in the address of your excellencies, and shares the hope therein expressed that the outcome of the situation in Cuba may be the maintenance of peace between the United States and Spain by affording the necessary guarantee for the re-establishment of order in the island, so terminating the chronic condition of disturbance there

Action of the Powers

which so deeply injures the interests and menaces the tranquillity of the American nation by the character and consequences of the struggle thus kept at our doors, besides shocking its sentiment of humanity.

“The government of the United States appreciates the humanitarian and disinterested character of the communication now made on behalf of the Powers named, and for its part is confident that equal appreciation will be shown for its earnest and unselfish endeavors to fulfil a duty to humanity by ending a situation the prolongation of which has become insufferable.”

President McKinley's answer certainly made clear that the United States proposed to pursue her course irrespective of any action of the Powers. The representatives of the Powers so informed their respective governments, and there ended the efforts of the Powers to prevent war. But even before the note of the Powers had been presented, efforts for peace had been made from another source in both Washington and Madrid.

The Pope of Rome, as the head of the Roman Catholic Church, had used his utmost *Appeal of* endeavors. The reigning family in *the Pope* Spain, and by far the greater part of the population, were devout Catholics.

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An appeal was made by the Pope to the Queen Regent, in the interest of peace, to yield to the demands made by the President of the United States in regard to the Cubans. The appeal of the Pope was received by the Queen with due respect and consideration, but prior to the presentation of the note by the Powers, it had been of little avail. The proposition of the Pope at first was that Spain should agree to grant an armistice in Cuba, provided the United States would withdraw its fleet from Key West.

Upon President McKinley and the American people the influence of the Pope was by no means as great as on Catholic Spain. Archbishop Ireland, however, was a friend of the President, and to him was intrusted the mission of presenting the Pope's plan for peace in Washington, which he accordingly did. The United States, however, refused to remove its fleet from Key West. After the note of the Powers was presented and failed to accomplish anything, Spain, yielding to the Pope's plea, granted a brief armistice. The Spanish Minister in Washington announced this to the administration, but the fact that the Cuban insurgents refused to accept any armistice left matters exactly as they were before.

CHAPTER XV

PRESIDENT MCKINLEY'S MESSAGE

PRESIDENT MCKINLEY's long-expected message was sent to Congress on Monday, April 11. With it were transmitted the reports of the United States consuls in Cuba in regard to conditions in the island. It had been expected on both sides of the Atlantic that the message of the President would be virtually a declaration of war. The message, however, dealt with the past rather than the future. It related facts more than it mapped out a course of action.

The President declared that reconcentration was not civilized warfare and recited the efforts of the United States to aid the reconcentrados. He asserted his belief that it would not be *Reasons for Intervention* wise for the United States to recognize the so-called Cuban republic. He summarized the reasons the United States had for intervening in Cuba as follows : —

First, In the interest of humanity and to put an end to the barbarities, bloodshed, and horrible miseries now existing there.

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Second, We owe it to our citizens in Cuba to afford them protection and indemnity for life and property.

Third, The right to intervene may be justified by the very serious injury to the commerce, trade, and business of our people.

Fourth, The present condition of affairs in Cuba is a constant menace to our peace and entails upon this government an enormous expense.

Lastly, President McKinley asserted :—

“In any event, the destruction of the ‘Maine,’ by whatever exterior cause, is a patent and impressive proof of a state of affairs in Cuba that is intolerable. That condition is thus shown to be such that the Spanish government cannot insure safety and security to a vessel of the American navy in the harbor of Havana on a mission of peace, and rightfully there.”

It was to Congress that President McKinley *Decision left* left the final opportunity of casting *to Congress* the die for peace or war. In closing his message, he said :—

“I ask Congress to authorize and empower the President to take measures to secure a full and final termination of hostilities between the government of Spain and the people of Cuba, and to secure in the island the establishment of a stable government, capable of maintaining order and preserving international

President McKinley's Message

obligations, insuring peace and tranquillity and the security of its citizens, as well as our own, and to use the military and naval forces of the United States as may be necessary for these purposes.

“The issue is now with Congress. It is a solemn responsibility. I have exhausted every effort to relieve the intolerable condition of affairs which is at our doors. Prepared to execute every obligation imposed upon me by the constitution and the law, I await your action.”

Congress hardly knew what to make of the President's message. In both the House of Representatives and the Senate the reading of the message was listened to with silence. After adjournment Senators and Representatives gathered in groups and discussed the President's declaration. Party lines were lost in the wilds of Cuba. Democrats warmly upheld the attitude of the Republican President. Republicans indignantly assailed the utterances of the head of their party.

CHAPTER XVI

REPORTS OF CUBAN CONSULS

BOTH Senate and House of Representatives had been demanding that reports made by the United States consuls in Cuba should be submitted to them. President McKinley had withheld these reports, fearing that the information in regard to the frightful condition of affairs would precipitate action on the part of Congress. With his message, however, he sent the consular reports. The greater part of them were compiled by General Fitzhugh Lee, Consul-General, but there were also communications from Owen McGarr, Consul at Cienfuegos; Mr. Brice, Consul at Matanzas; *Effects of Reconcentration* Pulaski F. Hyatt, at Santiago de Cuba, and Mr. Barker, at Sagua La Grande. As to General Weyler's order of reconcentration, General Lee wrote :

“It transformed about 400,000 self-supporting persons, principally women and children, into a multitude to be sustained by the contributions of others or to die by starvation or of fevers. Their

Reports of Cuban Consuls

homes were burned, their fields and plant beds destroyed, and their live stock driven away or killed.

“I estimate that probably 200,000 of the rural population in the provinces of Pinar del Rio, Havana, Matanzas, and Santa Clara have died of starvation or from resultant causes, and the deaths of whole families, almost simultaneously or within a few days of each other, and of mothers praying for their children to be relieved of their horrible suffering by death, are not the least of the many pitiable scenes which were ever present. In the provinces of Puerto Principe and Santiago de Cuba, where the reconcentrado order could not be enforced, the great mass of the people are self-sustaining.”

Descriptions of the horrible conditions in
Horrible Cuba were given by the consuls in
Conditions graphic language. General Lee in one report wrote:—

“Four hundred and sixty women and children, thrown on the ground, heaped pell-mell as animals, some in a dying condition, others dead, without the slightest cleanliness or the least help, not even able to give water to the thirsty, without either religious or social help, each one dying wherever chance laid him.

“Among the many deaths we saw there was one impossible to forget. There is still alive, the only witness, a young girl of eighteen whom we found seemingly lifeless on the ground. On her right side

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was the body of a young mother, cold and rigid, but with her young child still clinging to her breast. On her left side was the corpse of a woman holding her son in close embrace, a little further on a dying woman having in her arms a daughter of fourteen, crazy with pain, who after twelve or fourteen days died in spite of the care she received."

Spain had been prating for months about autonomy in Cuba,—the autonomy she had established, the autonomy she was going to establish, the autonomy which she said the insurgents had accepted. In summing up the situation in the latter part of November, 1897, General Lee wrote:—

"The insurgents will not accept autonomy. A large majority of the Spanish subjects, who have commercial and business interests, and own property here, will not accept autonomy, but prefer annexation to the United States rather than an independent republic or genuine autonomy under the Spanish."

CHAPTER XVII

DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS SEVERED

CONGRESS had been blaming the President for unnecessary delay in acting in reference to the Cuban situation, but when the message of McKinley put the responsibility of action upon Congress it was Congress that delayed. The President's message was referred to the foreign committees of the upper and lower houses and by them reported back with resolutions. The Senate wished to recognize the Cuban republic. The House did not. Conference committees were appointed and days of debate followed.

The House resolution read "that the people of Cuba of right ought to be free and independent." The Senate resolution *Congress not in Harmony* read "that the people of Cuba are and of right ought to be free and independent." All Monday night, April 18, House and Senate wrangled. The conference committees met, agreed, reported, were ordered to meet again, but finally the Senate yielded the point of the recognition of the Cuban government and the

History up to Date

House agreed to the insertion of the words "are and" into the resolutions.

Early on Tuesday morning, April 19, a joint resolution was passed by a vote of 310 to 6 in the House and of 42 to 35 in the Senate demanding that Spain withdraw at once from the island of Cuba, authorizing the President to use the land and naval forces of the United States to enforce the demand, and declaring that the sole reason for the United States interfering in Cuba was for the pacification of the island.¹

¹ The joint resolution adopted by Congress on April 19, 1898, and approved by the President the next day, read :

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled,

First, That the people of Cuba are and of right ought to be free and independent.

Second, That it is the duty of the United States to demand, and the government of the United States does hereby demand, that the government of Spain at once relinquish its authority and government of the island of Cuba and withdraw its land and naval forces from Cuba and Cuban waters.

Third, That the President of the United States be and he hereby is directed and empowered to use the entire land and naval forces of the United States and to call into actual service of the United States the militia of the several States to such an extent as may be necessary to carry these resolutions into effect.

Fourth, That the United States hereby disclaims any disposition or intention to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction, or con-

Diplomatic Relations Severed

The resolution was approved by the President on the next afternoon. Señor Polo de Bernabe, the Spanish Minister, on the passage of the resolution at once asked for his passports, turned over the business of the legation to the French Ambassador, M. Jules Cambon, and the same evening left for Canada with his secretaries and suite.

Immediately on the signing of the resolution of Congress by the President, Secretary of *McKinley's* State Sherman cabled the contents *Ultimatum* of the resolution to Minister Woodford in Madrid, directing him to inform the Spanish government that if the United States had not received a full and satisfactory response to the demands, by noon on Saturday, April 23 the President would proceed without further notice to use the power and authority conferred on him by Congress.

The cable message to General Woodford was not sent in cipher, as government despatches ordinarily are, and it was held in the cable company's office in Madrid for several hours before it was delivered to the United States

trol over said island except for the pacification thereof, and asserts its determination when that is accomplished to leave the government and control of the island to the people.

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Minister. Meanwhile the Spanish Cabinet had been informed of its contents. Before Minister Woodford had an opportunity to communicate the President's ultimatum to Premier Sagasta he received a curt note informing him that diplomatic relations between the two countries had been broken off. He at once asked for his passports, notified the United States consuls in Spain, turned over the business of the American legation to the British embassy, and left for Paris, whither he had already sent his family and his household goods.

CHAPTER XVIII

CUBAN COAST BLOCKADED

THE reception of the President's ultimatum in Madrid and the fact that Spain made no further response other than the dismissal of Minister Woodford, made it evident that the Spanish government was determined upon war. The United States therefore on April 22 began actual warfare by instituting a blockade of Havana and other ports of the island of Cuba.¹

¹ The blockade of Cuban ports was proclaimed by President McKinley as follows :—

“Whereas, by a joint resolution passed by the Congress and approved April 20, 1898, and communicated to the government of Spain, it was demanded that said government at once relinquish its authority and government in the island of Cuba and withdraw its land and naval forces from Cuba and Cuban waters, and the President of the United States was directed and empowered to use the entire land and naval forces of the United States and to call into the actual service of the United States the military of the several States to such an extent as might be necessary to carry said resolution into effect ;

“Whereas, in carrying into effect said resolution, the President of the United States deems it necessary to set on foot and

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For this blockade there were several excellent reasons. Havana was to a large extent dependent upon the United States for food supplies. By cutting off these supplies it was only a question of time until the army of General Blanco would have to be put on short rations. A strict blockade would prevent the arrival of reinforcements from

maintain a blockade of the north coast of Cuba, including all the ports on said coast between Cardenas and Bahia Honda and the port of Cienfuegos on the south coast of Cuba : —

“ Now, therefore, I, William McKinley, President of the United States, in order to enforce said resolution, do hereby declare and proclaim that the United States of America have instituted and will maintain a blockade on the northwest of Cuba, including ports on said coast between Cardenas and Bahia Honda and the port of Cienfuegos on the southwest of Cuba aforesaid, in pursuance of the laws of the United States and the law of nations applicable to such cases. An efficient force will be posted so as to prevent the entrance and exit of vessels from the ports aforesaid. Any neutral vessel approaching any of said ports or attempting to leave the same without notice or knowledge of such blockade will be duly warned by the commander of the blockading forces, who will indorse in her register the fact and date of such warning, and where such indorsement was made, and if same vessel shall again attempt to enter any blockade, she will be captured and sent to the nearest convenient port for such proceedings against her and her cargo as may be deemed advisable.

“ Neutral vessels lying in any of said ports at the time of the establishment of such blockade will be allowed thirty days to issue therefrom.”

Cuban Coast Blockaded

Spain. It was believed that if the residents of Havana were compelled to undergo privations, the reduction of the capital of the island would be the easier, and the earlier plans of campaign contemplated the taking of Havana among the first moves of war.

Notice of the blockade was issued to the nations of the world with the announcement that the United States would not resort to privateering; that neutral flags would protect the enemy's goods, with the exception of contraband of war; that neutral goods not contraband of war would not be liable to confiscation under the enemy's flag; and that blockades to be effective must be binding.

To enforce the blockade of Cuba the North Atlantic squadron, commanded by Acting Rear-Admiral Sampson, was directed to proceed from Key West to Havana, and just about the time the President's proclamation of a blockade was made public the first of the United States war-ships was sighted off the coast of Cuba by the lookout in Morro Castle, in Havana.

Prior to the war with Spain the principal stations at which the United States had its war-ships were the northern station, at New York; the Pacific station, at San Francisco; the Euro-

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pean station, at Lisbon ; and the Asiatic station, at Hong Kong.

When it seemed that war was inevitable, the European station was abandoned, and the cruiser and two gunboats that had been stationed there were ordered to this side of the Atlantic. The battle-ship "Oregon" was ordered to proceed from San Francisco around South America to Key West. When active preparations for war were begun the United States organized its war-ships on the Atlantic coast into three squadrons : —

Organization of the fleets The patrol squadron, under command of Commodore J. A. Howell.

The flying squadron, under command of Commodore Winfield Scott Schley.

The blockading squadron, under command of Captain W. T. Sampson, appointed Acting Rear-Admiral.

The patrol squadron was designed to protect the seaports of the North Atlantic coast. The cruiser "San Francisco" was made the flagship of Commodore Howell. New York was selected as the station of this squadron, to which were assigned several auxiliary cruisers, merchantmen, and pleasure yachts, purchased by the government and armed with light guns, and



REAR-ADMIRAL W. T. SAMPSON

Cuban Coast Blockaded

several old-fashioned monitors manned by members of the naval militia.

The flying squadron under Commodore Schley was stationed at Hampton Roads. It was composed of the armored cruiser "Brooklyn," flagship, the battle-ship "Massachusetts," the battle-ship "Texas," and the protected cruisers "Minneapolis" and "Columbia."

Composed, as it was, of fast vessels, the object of this squadron as organized by the Navy Department was twofold. It was well located to protect the middle coast. Its speed was such that in the event of the appearance of a fleet of the enemy either in the vicinity of the patrol squadron to the north or the blockading squadron to the south, it could quickly reinforce either fleet.

The third squadron, the one at first utilized in blockading Havana, was by far the larger and *Sampson's* stronger one. As originally organized it included the armored cruiser *Squadron* "New York," flagship; the battle-ships "Iowa" and "Indiana," the cruisers "Montgomery," "Marblehead," "Cincinnati," and "Detroit," the torpedo boats "Porter," "Winslow," "Cushing," "Dupont," "Ericsson," and

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“Foote,” and the gunboats “Nashville,” “Castine,” “Wilmington,” and “Newport.” It was soon increased by four monitors, the “Puritan,” the “Miantonomoh,” the “Terror,” and the “Amphitrite.”

The one other fleet of the United States besides those on the Atlantic coast, that was destined to play a prominent part in the war, was the Asiatic squadron at Hong Kong, commanded by Commodore Dewey. Of this fleet the largest vessel was the protected cruiser “Olympia,” flagship. Commodore Dewey had also the protected cruiser “Baltimore,” the protected cruiser “Raleigh,” the protected cruiser “Boston,” the gunboat “Concord,” and the gunboat “Petrel.” To these vessels about the time the war began he added two colliers.

CHAPTER XIX

WAR FORMALLY DECLARED

PRESIDENT MCKINLEY'S ultimatum, after its rejection by the Spanish cabinet, left Spain no other course than war, and on Sunday, April 24, 1898, a decree formally declaring war was gazetted in Madrid. In this decree Spain announced her intention to adhere with strictness to the principles of international law, reserving the right of privateering, but otherwise conforming to the declaration of Paris. Spain declared that the provocation for the war had come from the United States, and that it was the "detestable conduct" of that nation that had caused the complication.

There had been much discussion in the United States as to whether a formal *Declaration of War* was necessary. It was argued by many that the act of Congress, the war-making power under the Constitution, which authorized the president to use the military and naval forces against Spain,

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was all that was needed. Several Spanish steamships had, however, been seized by the United States fleet off Havana, and it was thought advisable by the administration that a declaration should be made. Accordingly, on Monday, April 25, the day after Spain had declared war, President McKinley sent a message to Congress urging that such action be at once taken. Within six hours from the time his message went to Congress he had signed a bill which both houses had passed, declaring that war existed between Spain and the United States. This act read :—

First, That war be and the same is hereby declared to exist and that war has existed since the 21st day of April, A. D. 1898, including said day, between the United States of America and the kingdom of Spain.

Second, That the President of the United States be and he is hereby directed and empowered to use the entire land and naval forces of the United States and to call into active service of the United States the militia of the several States to such an extent as may be necessary to carry this resolution into effect.

By the joint resolution of Congress previously adopted President McKinley had already been authorized to call out the militia of the

War Formally Declared

States, and he had already done so. A proclamation issued on April 23 called for 125,000 *First Call* volunteers, apportioned among the *for Troops* several States and Territories and the District of Columbia according to population, to serve for two years, unless sooner discharged. The President's call for volunteers was practically addressed to the national guards of the various States, but the quota of volunteers was distributed regardless of the strength of the State military organizations. Under this system New York was called upon to furnish the largest number of troops, 12,513, and Pennsylvania next, with 10,769. Nevada escaped with a quota of 138 men, and from Idaho, Georgia, Montana, North Dakota, Vermont, and Utah the number required in each case was less than one thousand.

To raise money for carrying on the war, the same day the President issued the call for troops, Representative Dingley of Maine, the father of the Dingley tariff law, introduced into the House a war revenue bill. At about the same time the work of protecting all the principal harbors along the Atlantic coast was begun, submarine mines and torpedoes were laid in the channels, and an elaborate system of

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electrical signals was devised to give warning of the approach of a hostile fleet.¹

¹ President McKinley's message of April 25 was as follows: —

“To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America: —

“I transmit to the Congress for its consideration and appropriate action copies of correspondence recently had with the representative of Spain in the United States, with the United States Minister at Madrid, and through the latter with the government of Spain, showing the action taken under the joint resolution approved April 20, 1898, for the recognition of the independence of the people of Cuba, demanding that the government of Spain relinquish its authority and government in the island of Cuba and withdraw its land and naval forces from Cuba and Cuban waters, and directing the President of the United States to use the land and naval forces of the United States to carry these resolutions into effect.

“Upon communicating to the Spanish Minister in Washington the demand which it became the duty of the Executive to address to the government of Spain in obedience to said resolution, the Minister asked for his passports and withdrew. The United States Minister at Madrid was in turn notified by the Spanish Minister for Foreign Affairs that the withdrawal of the Spanish representative from the United States had terminated diplomatic relations between the two countries and that official communications between their respective representatives ceased therewith.

“I commend to your special attention the note addressed to the United States Minister at Madrid by the Spanish Minister for Foreign Affairs, on the 21st instant, whereby the foregoing notification was conveyed. It will be perceived therefrom that the government of Spain, having cognizance of the

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joint resolution of the United States Congress, and in view of the things which the President is thereby authorized to do, responds by treating the reasonable demands of this government as measures of hostility, following with that instant and complete severance of relations by its action which, by the usage of nations, accompanies an existent state of war between sovereign powers.

“The position of Spain being thus made known and the demands of the United States being denied, with a complete rupture of intercourse by the act of Spain, I have been constrained in exercise of the power and authority conferred upon me by the resolution aforesaid to proclaim, under date of April 22, 1898, a blockade of certain ports of the north coast of Cuba, lying between Cardenas and Bahia Honda and of the port of Cienfuegos on the south coast of Cuba; and further, in exercise of my constitutional powers, and using the authority conferred upon me by act of Congress, approved April 22, 1898, to issue my proclamation dated April 23, calling for volunteers in order to carry into effect the said resolution of April 20, 1898, copies of these proclamations being hereto appended.

“In view of the measures so taken, and with a view to the adoption of such other measures as may be necessary to enable me to carry out the expressed will of Congress of the United States in the premises, I now recommend to your honorable body, the executive body, the adoption of a joint resolution declaring that a state of war exists between the United States of America and the kingdom of Spain, and I urge speedy action thereon to the end that the definition of the international status of the United States as a belligerent power may become known, and the assertion of all the rights and the maintenance of all its duties in the conduct of a public war may be assured.”

CHAPTER XX

FIRST MOVES OF WAR

THE United States in beginning the war against Spain set out to do four things: to capture the Philippine Islands in the Pacific and destroy the Spanish fleet there; to blockade Havana and the other ports of the northern coast of Cuba and the port of Cienfuegos on the southwest; to capture any Spanish ships that were carrying contraband of war or were trying to run the blockade; to destroy the fleet of Spain under Admiral Camara, which had been mobilized at the Cape Verde Islands.

Commodore Dewey, commanding the Asiatic squadron of the United States Navy, was at Hong Kong when war was declared. *Dewey*
ordered to Immediately on the declaration of
Manila war by the United States, instructions were sent to him to move against Manila, the capital of the Philippines. No sooner had the United States and Spain made declarations of war than Great Britain issued a



REAR-ADMIRAL DEWEY.

First Moves of War

proclamation of neutrality. In accordance with the terms of this proclamation, Admiral Dewey had to take his squadron away from Hong Kong, a British port, within twenty-four hours. He moved to Mirs Bay, a Chinese port, only a few miles away, where he continued his preparations, and awaited the arrival of Mr. Williams, the United States Consul at Manila.

On the arrival of Mr. Williams, Commodore Dewey, in the last week of April, set sail for Manila with his fleet: the flagship, the "Olympia," commanded by Captain Gridley; the "Baltimore," commanded by Captain Dyer; the "Raleigh," commanded by Captain Coghlan; the "Boston," commanded by Captain Wildes; the "Concord," commanded by Commander Walker; and the "Petrel," commanded by Commander Wood.

As for the blockade of Cuban ports, the fleet of Rear-Admiral Sampson set sail from Key West at daybreak on April 22, and at five o'clock that afternoon was sighted advancing on Havana from the westward.

Within a few hours after the departure of *First Prizes of the War* Admiral Sampson's fleet from Key West, the gunboat "Nashville" returned to that port escorting the big Spanish

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freight ship, the "Buena Ventura," the first prize of the war.

Later in the same day the Spanish merchantman "Pedro," loaded with iron, beer, and rice, was captured as she was leaving Havana for Santiago de Cuba, Captain Bonet, commanding her, learning that the American fleet had been sighted approaching Havana, feared that the city was to be bombarded and hurriedly left the harbor.

The "Pedro" was sighted by the "New York," Admiral Sampson's flagship, going at full speed. The "New York" started in pursuit and caught her after a chase of ten miles. Several of the lighter guns were fired at her, but not until the "New York" let fly a heavy shot did the "Pedro" heave to.

While the war talk was crystallizing into declarations of war by Spain and the United States, Spain had been mobilizing as *Spain's Fleet started West* powerful a fleet as she could muster at the Cape Verde Islands. The armored cruisers "Vizcaya" and "Almirante Oquendo," which had been at Havana together, recrossed the Atlantic to rejoin two other cruisers, the "Infanta Maria Teresa" and the "Cristobal Colon." The fleet also included three fast tor-

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pedo boat destroyers, the "Furor," "Pluton," and "Terror," three torpedo boats, the "Ariete," "Azor," and "Rayo," the transport "Ciudad de Cadiz," and the armed collier "San Francisco."

This squadron was commanded by Admiral Cervera, with Admiral Villamil in command of the torpedo boat destroyers.

Before the departure of Admiral Cervera and his men from the Cape Verdes the Spanish sailors knelt before a shrine of the Virgin Mary and took a solemn vow never to return to Spain except as victors. Admiral Cervera received long-expected sailing orders and set sail on April 29.

The ships left St. Vincent in two divisions. The first, in which were the three torpedo boats, the collier and the transport, turned northward to the Canary Islands, *en route* for Spain. In only a few hours they returned to St. Vincent, one of the torpedo boats having been somewhat damaged in a collision with the transport. After delaying a short time for repairs the torpedo boat flotilla set out again for Spain. The other division of the fleet, the four armored cruisers, commanded by Admiral Cervera, and the three torpedo boat destroyers,

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commanded by Admiral Villamil, set out in a westerly direction.

The departure of this fleet at the time it did was largely due to Portugal, to whom the Cape Verde Islands belong, having declared neutrality. The United States had brought some pressure on Portugal to attain this, and it was feared that the United States, unless Portugal declared neutrality, would regard her as an ally of Spain and act accordingly.

CHAPTER XXI

THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

UP to the time that Commodore Dewey's fleet set sail from Mirs Bay for Manila there had been little interest taken in the United States, outside of commercial circles, in the Philippines. These islands were, however, of considerable importance. Luzon was the largest of a group stretching nine hundred miles north and south and five hundred miles east and west, in the Pacific Ocean, south of Japan and east of China. Since their discovery by Magellan early in the sixteenth century, they had been under Spanish dominion, except for a brief period when the British held Manila, the capital of Luzon.

Spain had found these islands a valuable and apparently inexhaustible source of revenue. *Wealth of the Islands* Military governors, sent out from Madrid, had returned home with enormous fortunes. The Jesuits, who had early established missions, had grown rich and

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powerful in the island. In mineral products the Philippines could boast of coal, gold, and iron, all of them in paying quantities, although little effort had been made toward systematic mining. In vegetable products there was profusion and variety. In Manila there was one tobacco factory that employed six thousand hands. The Philippine Islands produced the greater part of the world's supply of hemp. Coffee, tea, sugar, rice, and many other kinds of fruit and grain were raised in abundance. Many parts of the islands were still in the possession of uncivilized tribes. The population of the group was estimated at from seven millions up. The population of Manila, the chief city and capital, was about two hundred and fifty thousand.

That the United States had strong commercial interests in the Philippines is shown by the fact that the United States Consul there in the year 1897 supervised more export trade than all the consuls of other nations put together.

Natives of the islands in 1896, under the leadership of Emilio Aguinaldo, had risen against the Spanish authorities. The *Emilio Aguinaldo* leaders belonged to the higher and better-educated native classes, and they exerted

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in every way possible their influence against murder and pillage.

General Pinero de Rivera, the Spanish Captain-General in the Philippines, had brought this revolution to an end and accomplished what he and the Madrid government were pleased to call a pacification of the island by making many promises of reforms and by paying to the leaders of the rebels a considerable sum of money in return for which they agreed to leave the island.

Despite the claims of the captain-general as to the pacification of the islands, large bands of the rebels continued to devastate Bulacan, Nueva, Excija, Pangasis, and Tarlac. Many villages were burned down, and the rice harvests were destroyed by fire. Reforms promised by the Spaniards were not carried out. Prisoners, who were implicated in the rebellion of 1896, were not freed, as had been agreed. The turbulence broke forth anew in March, 1898, when attempts were made to collect taxes.

The first act of the new movement was an attack on the cable station at Bolinao. On the night of March 7 all the land lines connecting the cable with Manila

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were destroyed. Troops sent from Manila soon regained and held the cable station, but they made little headway against the rebels. Although poorly armed, the rebels in the mountainous and wooded districts through which the troops were compelled to pass never hesitated to attack a superior force.

If the uprising had begun only in one place, the work of suppressing it might have been easier, but telegrams kept pouring into Manila from various sections of the country asking for reinforcements. The situation for all Europeans was full of danger. Rumors came in from everywhere of the wrath of the insurgents wreaked on the priests, of Spanish ladies taken prisoners. Telegraph lines were cut and the railroad destroyed, the object being to prevent the hurrying of troops to towns the rebels had determined to pillage. Before the arrival of Aguinaldo from Hong Kong, little effort was made to restrain the rebels from pillaging and violence.

Upon hearing that the American fleet had set sail for Manila, the Spaniards made every effort to rally the natives to their support. Captain-General Augustin issued a proclamation in which he declared the Americans would

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throw down the temples, ravage the women, pollute the tombs, and seize the property the inhabitants of the islands had laid by for their old age. His proclamation had little effect on the Filipinos, and so threatening did their attitude become, even those who still professed allegiance to Spain, that many of the native regiments in the garrisons of Manila were disarmed.

CHAPTER XXII

THE BATTLE OF CAVITE

COMMODORE DEWEY reached the Philippines and entered the Bay of Manila on the evening of April 30. Corregidor Island, at the entrance to the bay, was known to be well fortified, but Commodore Dewey decided to enter the bay at once. Led by the flagship "Olympia," the "Baltimore," "Raleigh," "Petrel," "Concord," and "Boston," in the order named, steamed quietly past Corregidor. It was eight o'clock in the evening and bright moonlight. Not until the flagship was a mile beyond the fortress was the entrance of the fleet discovered. A heavy shot went screaming over the "Raleigh." Another, fired at the "Olympia," fell astern of her. The "Raleigh," "Concord," and "Boston" took up the challenge. Some of the "Concord's" shells fell inside the Corregidor batteries, and they were silent.

The Battle of Cavite

Slowly the squadron advanced into the bay, the men sleeping beside their guns. Daybreak *Meeting of the Fleets* found Commodore Dewey's fleet within five miles of the city of Manila. Then the squadron of Spain, commanded by Rear-Admiral Montojo, was sighted. Montojo had intended to make a stand in Subig Bay, some distance from Manila, but Dewey had arrived before he had time to carry out his plans. The Spanish fleet lay under the protecting guns of the fortress of Cavite. The admiral's flag was flying from the "Reina Cristina," a protected cruiser of 3,500 tons. Moored just ahead of her was the protected cruiser "Castilla," of 3,200 tons. Astern were the cruisers "Don Juan de Austria," "Don Antonio de Ulloa," "Isla de Cuba," "Isla de Luzon," and three gunboats of light draught.

With the stars and stripes fluttering at their mastheads, the ships of the United States moved to the attack in line ahead, at a speed of eight knots. As they passed in front of the city of Manila land batteries there opened fire and sent a shell or two over the fleet. The "Concord" let go with two guns, but Commodore Dewey would not permit any more to

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be fired, as it was impossible to engage these batteries without dealing death and destruction to the city behind them.

The batteries failing to stop the progress of the fleet, the Spaniards exploded two submarine mines in the bay. They had misjudged the position of Commodore Dewey's ships, and though great volumes of water were thrown into the air, no damage was done to the ships. Though they knew not how many more mines lay ahead, onward steamed the American fleet without faltering.

A few minutes later the shore battery at Cavite Point sent a shot over the "Olympia" "*Remember* that nearly hit the battery in the '*Maine*' " Manila. Soon the gunners of Spain got a better range, and shells from both the shore batteries and Admiral Montojo's ships began to strike the water in the vicinity of the American ships. The heat was intense. The men, stripped to the waist, stood at their posts awaiting the word from Commodore Dewey. All was silent on the American fleet. Suddenly a Spanish shell burst directly over the United States fleet.

From a boatswain's mate at the after five-inch gun of the flagship came a hoarse cry, "Re-



THE BATTLE OF CAVITE. (*From an Oil Painting.*)

The Battle of Cavite

member the 'Maine'!" As if inspired by a mighty hatred for a common foe, there rose in unison from the throats of the five hundred men at the guns the cry, "Remember the 'Maine'!" The watchword was caught up in turrets and firerooms, wherever seaman or fireman stood at his post.

The "Olympia" was now ready to begin the fight. Commodore Dewey, his chief of staff, Commander Lamberton, with the executive officer, Lieutenant Rees, and the navigator, Lieutenant Calkins, were on the forward bridge. Captain Gridley, the commander of the "Olympia," was in the conning tower.

At nineteen minutes before six o'clock, on the morning of May 1, 1898, the battle of Cavite began, when Commodore Dewey turned to the conning tower and quietly said: "You may fire when ready, Gridley."

"Capture or destroy the Spanish squadron" were the instructions that had been cabled to *Dewey's* Commodore Dewey from Washing-
Victories ton, and never were instructions better carried out than by the United States squadron in Manila Bay upon the 1st of May, 1898. "You may fire when ready, Gridley," was the signal for a naval battle, at

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the end of which not one Spanish flag flew in Manila Bay, and not one Spanish vessel floated except as an American prize. Five times Commodore Dewey swept along the Spanish line, each time inflicting terrible damage on Admiral Montojo's fleet. Not an American was killed, not an American ship was sunk, yet the victory over the Spaniards was complete.

At the signal from the commodore, Captain Gridley gave the word, and the starboard eight-inch gun in the forward turret of the "Olympia" let go at the fortifications of Cavite. The "Baltimore" and "Boston" opened fire on the "Castilla" and the "Reina Cristina." Spanish shells fell thick and fast around the flagship, which led the line straight to the centre of the Spanish line. A shell cut the rigging above the head of Commander Lamberton. Another passed just under where Commodore Dewey stood.

When the "Olympia" had approached within four thousand yards of Admiral Montojo's position she changed her course and ran parallel to the Spanish line, the other ships following. "Open with all guns," said Commodore Dewey, and a hurricane of shells rained upon the



SPANISH FLAG-SHIP "REINA CRISTINA," MAY 1, 1898.

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enemy's vessels and on the protecting fortifications of Cavite.

Despite the awful bombardment the Spaniards made a gallant fight and Commodore

*Damage
to Ameri-
can Ships*

Dewey's ships were constantly under a hot fire. A shot struck the "Baltimore" and passed clear through her.

Another ripped up her deck, disabled a six-inch gun, and exploded a box of ammunition, wounding eight men. On the "Olympia" the signal halyards were cut from Lieutenant Brumby's hands as he stood on the after bridge. On the "Boston" a shell burst in an ensign's stateroom, starting a hot fire, which was quickly extinguished. A shell passed through the "Boston's" foremast, just in front of Captain Wildes on the bridge.

Four times the American vessels swept the Spanish line from a distance of four thousand yards. Lieutenant Calkins, the "Olympia's" navigator, then told Commodore Dewey he believed he could take the ships in nearer shore. With the lead to watch the depth of the water, the flagship started over the course for the fifth time, running this time within two thousand yards of the Spanish vessels. Even the American six-pounders were effective at this range, and

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the Spanish fleet soon showed the results that were being accomplished, by their weakening fire. Three of the Spanish ships were seen to be burning as this run was finished, and Commodore Dewey decided to stop the fighting temporarily that his men might have their breakfast.

It was now twenty-five minutes before eight o'clock, and the men had been at their guns *Stopped for* for nearly two hours with nothing to *Breakfast* sustain them but one cup of coffee. The American ships accordingly withdrew behind some foreign shipping on the other side of the bay until shortly before eleven o'clock, when the signal for close action went up. This time the "Baltimore" led with the flagship following and the other ships as before. At sixteen minutes past eleven o'clock the "Baltimore" began making target hits on the Spanish ships. They returned the fire very slowly, and Commodore Dewey sent the "Raleigh," the "Boston," the "Concord," and the "Petrel" into the inner harbor to destroy what was left of Admiral Montojo's fleet.

The "Petrel," owing to her light draught, was able to move within one thousand yards of the enemy, where she could inflict tremen-



"SAN ANTONIO DE ULLOA," MAY 1, 1898.

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dous damage. The other ships, though at a greater distance, still did effective work, and soon Spain's colors had vanished except on a battery along the coast. Admiral Montojo's flagship and the "Castilla" had been burning fiercely for a long time, and the Spaniards had been forced to abandon their ships one by one. The "Don Antonio de Ulloa" was the last vessel to be abandoned, just before she lurched over and sank.

A white flag was hoisted on the Cavite arsenal at half-past twelve, the Spanish colors being hauled down, and then Lieutenant Hughes, with an armed boat's crew from the "Petrel," went into the inner harbor and set fire to the "Don Juan de Austria," the "Marques del Duero," the "Isla de Cuba," and the "Correo." The transport "Manila" and some smaller vessels were taken as prizes.

CHAPTER XXIII

CAVITE ARSENAL SEIZED

COMMODORE DEWEY, the morning following the battle off Cavite, ordered Commander Lamberton to go to the naval arsenal of Cavite, where the day before a white flag had been raised, and take possession. The "Petrel" took him within five hundred yards of the landing, when he saw to his surprise that the arsenal was occupied still by about eight hundred seamen armed with Mauser rifles. Commander Lamberton ordered the guns of the "Petrel" manned and directed that if he had not returned in an hour the gunners should open fire on the arsenal.

Captain Sostoa, ranking next to Admiral Montojo, received Commander Lamberton. When Commander Lamberton expressed surprise at seeing the Spaniards under arms, after having surrendered the day before, Captain Sostoa declared that the white flag displayed did not mean that they had surrendered, but that the flag had been hoisted in order that they



MAIN ENTRANCE TO CAVITE. SPANISH GUARD.

Cavite Arsenal Seized

might remove the women and children to places of safety. To this Commander Lamberton replied that when the white flag went up no other interpretation could be put upon it than unconditional surrender, and that the women and children ought not to have been there, anyway.

Captain Sostoa's reply to this was that the American fleet had come so early that there had *Arsenal* been no time to remove the women *surrendered* and children, and if the Americans had not begun the fight so soon the women would have been out of the way. Commander Lamberton reminded him that the Spaniards had fired the first shot, but added that he was not there to discuss the past. Admiral Dewey had sent him there to take possession of the arsenal. All the Spaniards there must lay down their arms and surrender, or the ships would open fire.

The Spanish captain pleaded for more time. He asked that the terms of surrender be written out, and Commander Lamberton wrote : —

“ Without further delay all Spanish officers and men must be withdrawn, and no buildings or stores must be injured. As Commodore Dewey does not wish

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further hostility with the Spanish naval forces, the Spanish officers will be paroled and the forces at the arsenal will deliver their small arms.”

The hour's time, at the end of which the “Petrel's” guns were to open fire, had nearly expired. Commander Lamberton decided to grant Captain Sostoa's request for more time, and gave him until noon to surrender. He said that if the white flag was not hoisted at that time the fleet would shell the arsenal. Commander Lamberton then returned to the “Petrel.” At a quarter before eleven the white flag was again hoisted over the Cavite arsenal. When the Americans went there in the afternoon to take possession it was found that every seaman had marched off to Manila, carrying his Mauser with him.

On the same day Commodore Dewey blew up six batteries at the entrance to Manila Bay, cut the cable connecting the islands with the outside world, and established the blockade of Manila. The next day he swept the bay for torpedoes.

Thus ten days after the beginning of the war Manila found itself in bad straits. Spanish property to the value of \$6,000,000 had been

Cavite Arsenal Seized

destroyed or captured, 1,200 Spaniards had been killed and wounded, among the latter *Results of Dewey's Victory* Admiral Montojo and many of his officers. The only way for any news to get out of Manila was by such vessels as Commodore Dewey permitted to go to Hong Kong. In accomplishing these great results, the American fleet had not a man killed and had only eight men wounded. The damage done to the ships by the Spanish shells amounted to only about \$5,000.

Though this victory made Dewey a rear-admiral and won for him the thanks of Congress, his troubles were by no means ended with the destruction of the Spanish fleet in the Philippines and the capture of the arsenal at Cavite. A large amount of ammunition was used in destroying the fleet, and the nearest American base of supplies was San Francisco. It was impossible to purchase ammunition anywhere in the Far East, owing to the proclamations of neutrality. It would be many days at the best before supplies sent out from the United States could reach him.

Still another problem that confronted him was the occupation of towns or forts which he captured. He had only a limited number

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of marines. He was forced to parole the foes he conquered. The insurgents, whom Aguinaldo, the leader of the former rebellion, had now taken charge of, formed a third difficult factor in the situation, for American humanity decreed that they must be kept from ravage and bloodshed. Having carried out his instructions to destroy the Spanish fleet in the Philippines, there was nothing more, apparently, for Admiral Dewey to do but to hold what he had and to wait for the authorities in Washington to act.

CHAPTER XXIV

SPAIN'S MANY TROUBLES

SPAIN early sought to ally with her some of the other nations of Europe. Two days after declaring war she issued a note to the Powers expressing regret at being compelled to appeal to force in order to "repel the scandalous aggression of the United States." These efforts of Spain to interest the Powers in her behalf proved futile. England had already issued a proclamation of neutrality. France, Russia, Italy, and Denmark soon followed her example. Germany and Austria, while making no formal declarations of neutrality, intimated their intention of occupying neutral positions. China and Japan, most of the South American republics, and the remaining nations of Europe soon joined the ranks of the neutrals. Portugal, the last hope, issued a proclamation of neutrality on April 29, and dying Spain was left alone to battle with the strong young republic of the west.

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With the scanty means at her command, Spain nevertheless began energetic preparations for war. Work on war-ships building or undergoing repairs at Cadiz was hurried on with all speed possible. English engineers were hired at high wages to assist in the navy's preparations. All the coal obtainable was purchased. The torpedo boat destroyer "Destructor" was despatched on an unsuccessful cruise after American yachts in the Mediterranean. Admiral Cervera's fleet was ordered from the Cape Verde Islands to Cuba.

It was soon manifest that Spain, in resorting to war, was by no means sanguine of success.

Attitude of Señor Silvela, in a speech to the *Carlists* Spanish Cortes on April 30, said the war was necessary to satisfy Spanish honor, but that it was for the Cortes and not the Cabinet to say when the war had gone far enough. When the news of the destruction of Admiral Montojo's fleet in the Philippines became public, it was necessary to put Madrid under martial law to prevent rioting. The Queen Regent sought to unify the Spanish people to defend the realms of her little son Alfonso XIII., but the Carlists, followers of Don Carlos, pretender to the Spanish throne, made the most of their opportuni-

Spain's Many Troubles

ties. Señor Salmeron declared openly in the Cortes : —

“We expend millions to maintain the monarchy, but have not enough to buy ironclads. Whoever will destroy the existing régime will be a great patriot.”

A mob assembled in front of the house of Premier Sagasta and hooted him. Another crowd assembled before the residence of General Weyler, former Captain-General of Cuba, and cheered him vociferously. Circulars were issued upholding Don Carlos as the only true patriot in Spain, and fiercely attacking the government for treachery. It was urged in these circulars that the time for a revolution had come.

One of the first effects of the war was to cause a sudden rise in food prices in both *Bread Riots* Europe and America. The great *in Spain* quantities of supplies purchased by both governments, the prospect of export trade being seriously interfered with by hostilities, and artificial forcing up of the prices by skilful speculators, combined to produce an upward movement, particularly in the cost of wheat, that caused much suffering to the poorer classes.

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Nowhere was the increased cost of provisions felt more than in poverty-stricken Spain. The government adopted drastic measures to keep food in the country. A bill passed the Spanish Cortes on May 5, taking effect immediately, totally prohibiting the exportation of wheat, flour, and potatoes. The duties on provisions imported were also reduced.

Bread riots followed at Valencia, Gyon, Talavera de la Reyna, Caceres, Catalan, Badajos, Alicante, Linares, and other places, in most of which martial law was at once proclaimed. In Linares fourteen rioters were shot and killed. In Alicante the rioters looted and burned some bonded warehouses. Provision stores in all parts of Spain were gutted, and merchants' offices broken into and robbed.

CHAPTER XXV

NEW CABINET FORMED

HAMPERED by poverty, impoverished by dishonesty in high places, already worn out by strife long continued in the Philippines and Cuba, Spain shortly after the destruction of Admiral Montojo's fleet was nearly rent in twain. In the second week of May Sagasta, the Premier, despairingly exclaimed:—

“I believed that the first cannon-shot fired by the United States against our troops would be a signal for *Sagasta in* the union and fraternity of all Spaniards, *Despair* as all are equally affected by the assault of the United States. I was mistaken. Certain Parliamentary groups are in disagreement with the government and have the pretension to make conditions in return for their support. They thus paralyze our efforts and diminish the strength which is indispensable to the government. Spain is desolated and ruined by internal troubles.”

Mobs were marching the streets of many of the Spanish cities, demanding bread. Subscriptions for war funds which were opened in

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War, Lieutenant-General Correa ; Minister of Marine, Captain Aunon ; Minister of the Colonies, Señor Romero Giron ; Minister of Finance, Señor Lopez Puigcerver ; Minister of the Interior, Señor F. R. Capdepon ; Minister of Justice, Señor C. Groizard ; Minister of Public Instruction, Señor Gamazo.

The portfolio of foreign affairs had first been offered to Señor Leon y Castillo, the Spanish Ambassador to France, who was looked upon as one of the ablest of the Spanish diplomats. There were rumors of an Anglo-American alliance, and the need of a particularly strong man as Minister of Foreign Affairs was realized. Señor Castillo would not accept the place, and Sagasta, after filling the place himself for a few days, gave it to the Duke Almadovar de Rios.

CHAPTER XXVI

CHANGES IN WASHINGTON

IN Washington, as in Madrid, the war made great changes, though of a different character.

Cabinet Changes Although President McKinley's Cabinet remained practically intact, John Sherman, Secretary of State, whose great age made the duties of his office too onerous for him, was succeeded by Judge William R. Day, an intimate friend of the President, who previously had held the office of Assistant Secretary of State. Postmaster-General James A. Gary resigned, and was succeeded by Charles Emory Smith. Later when Judge Day was made president of the Peace Commission, John Hay, United States Ambassador to England, was recalled to become Secretary of State.

The real changes in Washington were in the army and navy departments. In the Navy Department a strategy board had been organized. Another commission was selecting vessels suitable for charter or purchase. Bureau chiefs of both the army and navy were hurriedly

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gathering together supplies of all kinds to equip the volunteers. Camps where the volunteers were mobilized with regulars as speedily as possible were established at Chickamauga Park, Georgia, Tampa and Jacksonville, Florida, and other places.

To officer the vastly increased land force of the United States President McKinley made *Generals* many appointments. Among the *appointed* first major-generals appointed were General Joseph Wheeler, who had been an intrepid cavalry leader on the Confederate side during the Civil War ; General Fitzhugh Lee, former Consul-General in Cuba, who had also distinguished himself as a Confederate officer ; Brigadier-General Joseph C. Breckinridge ; Brigadier-General Elwell S. Otis ; Brigadier-General William R. Shafter ; Brigadier-General John J. Coppinger ; and Brigadier-General H. C. Merriam.

Several colonels in the regular army became brigadier-generals, among them Thomas F. Anderson, Jacob F. Kent, Samuel B. M. Young, and Guy V. Henry. Among the lieutenant-colonels who became brigadier-generals were Henry W. Lawton, Theodore Schwan, William Ludlow, and Adna R. Chaffee.

Changes in Washington

These first appointments were made principally from men whose knowledge of military affairs made them well qualified as army leaders. Later when a call for 75,000 more volunteers was issued, and it became necessary to appoint many additional officers of volunteers, political influence was exerted for a horde of applicants, and Washington became a battleground for army places. Even had the President chosen to oppose the wishes of his political friends, it was impossible for him in the crush of affairs to give much personal attention to the selection of officers. As a result, while most of the more important officers were men of military ability, many of the minor places were filled by "sons of their fathers."

Among the brigadier-generals appointed later by President McKinley were Colonel Robert H. Hall, of the Fourth United States Infantry; Colonel Edward V. Sumner, of the Seventh United States Cavalry; Colonel Peter S. Hains, of the engineer corps; Colonel George L. Gillespie, corps of engineers; Colonel Jacob Kline, of the Twenty-first United States Infantry.

Of the brigadier-generals appointed who were not in the regular army were Colonel

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Frederick D. Grant, a son of President U. S. Grant; Harrison Gray Otis, of California; Henry M. Duffield, of Michigan, a close friend of the Secretary of War; Charles King, of Wisconsin; Lucius F. Hubbard, of Minnesota; George A. Garretson, of Ohio, an intimate friend of both President McKinley and Senator Hanna, and a veteran officer of the Civil War; William W. Gordon, of Georgia, a former Confederate soldier; Francis V. Greene, Colonel of the Seventy-first New York Volunteer Infantry, and James Rush Lincoln, of Iowa, a former Confederate officer and president of a military college.

Of those who received minor appointments were John A. Logan, a son of General John A. Logan; *Influence at Work* Erskine Hewitt, a son of former Mayor Hewitt, of New York; Fred M. Alger, a son of the Secretary of War; James G. Blaine, a son of the late Secretary of State Blaine; William B. Allison, a nephew of Senator Allison; Francis P. Fremont, a son of General Fremont; Robert Sewall, a son of Senator Sewall; Joseph B. Foraker and Edward Murphy, sons of the Senators of those names; P. Bradley Strong, a son of former Mayor Strong, of New York; G. C. Creighton

Changes in Washington

Webb, a relative of the Vanderbilts ; Russell B. Harrison, son of former President Benjamin Harrison ; Avery D. Andrews, former Police Commissioner of New York and son-in-law of General Schofield ; Algernon Sartoris, grandson of General U. S. Grant ; Stewart Brice, son of former Senator Brice ; and Fitzhugh Lee, Jr., a son of the major-general.

William Jennings Bryan, who had been the opponent of McKinley in the election for President, raised a regiment, which from the fact that most of its members held the same political views as their leader became known as the "Silver Battalion." Mr. Bryan was made colonel of the regiment.

CHAPTER XXVII

INCIDENTS OF THE BLOCKADE

WHILE the Asiatic squadron of the United States was meeting with such signal success in the Philippines, the blockading squadron under Rear-Admiral Sampson was by no means idle in the waters surrounding the island of Cuba. The first landing made by the navy in Cuba was merely that of a scouting expedition. On Sunday night, April 24, the little torpedo boat "Porter" ran in close to the north coast of the island. Lieutenant John C. Fremont, a son of the "Path Finder," already famous in American annals, was put ashore. It took him only a few hours to ascertain what Acting Rear-Admiral Sampson wanted to know, and he then returned to the "Porter," without having been discovered by the Spaniards.

Hardly a day passed for a few weeks after the beginning of the war that the navy did not take one or more Spanish prizes. One of the most interesting of these captures was that of the *Compania Trasatlantica Español's* steamer

Incidents of the Blockade

“Panama” by the little lighthouse tender “Mangrove,” commanded by Lieutenant Commander W. H. Everett.

While Havana harbor was tightly sealed by the blockading squadron the blockade runners *Blockade* occasionally managed to make one of *running* the other ports. One of the successful blockade runners was the mail steamer “Montserrat.” This vessel had originally set out for Havana, but on approaching that port she was sighted and pursued by the American war-ships. She then turned and ran around the eastern end of Cuba to Cienfuegos. That she was not captured was a source of deep regret to the navy when it was learned that she had on board one thousand Spanish soldiers, half a million dollars in silver, and eighteen guns of large calibre, originally intended for Havana.

Not only was the Navy Department active along the Cuban coast, but the War Department took steps to secure the co-operation of the insurgent soldiers under Gomez and Garcia in Cuba. Lieutenant Rowan was sent to Jamaica and thence to the southeastern part of Cuba, where he gained much valuable information about the topography of the coun-

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try and the condition and strength of the Spanish troops. He set out from Stanns' Bay, Jamaica, on April 24, at two o'clock in the morning, in a schooner provided by the Cuban Junta of Jamaica, and was landed on the south coast. He did not return until after he had met General Garcia and informed him of the War Department's plans.

It was expected by Captain-General Blanco and the residents of Havana that that city would be one of the first points of attack after the war with the United States began. This belief was strengthened by the appearance off the harbor of the blockading squadron. Most of the foreigners in Havana had departed before the blockade was instituted, fearing both that the city might be bombarded, and that the blockade would result in a shortage of food supplies. While their fears in regard to the bombardment were not realized, it was not long after the blockade was established until food supplies of all kinds began to increase in price and decrease in quantity.

To keep up the spirit of the people every method was resorted to. When the news of the destruction of Admiral Montojo's fleet in the Philippines was received in the palace, it



GENERAL MAXIMO GOMEZ AND HIS STAFF.

By permission of the New York Herald.

Incidents of the Blockade

was given out that Admiral Dewey's fleet had been entirely destroyed. The newspapers published extras on the information *Havana during the Blockade* issued by Captain-General Blanco, and there was a general illumination of Havana in honor of the "Spanish victory." Not only in the cafés and market-places, but among the military leaders, were plans gravely discussed for an expedition against Florida. "We shall recapture the territory once ours," was the boast of soldier and civilian alike.

There were, however, strenuous efforts made on the part of the military authorities to be ready for an invasion. Large forces of men were put to work strengthening the batteries on either side of Havana harbor. Residents of Havana anticipated, and not without reason, that aid would come to them from Mexico and from some of the South American countries. Subscriptions to the "Spanish war fund" were opened in many South American cities, and not a few officers resigned their commissions in the armies of these countries to seek service with Spain. The countries themselves, for the most part, remained neutral, and issued declarations to that effect.

CHAPTER XXVIII

MATANZAS, CARDENAS, CIENFUEGOS

NOT all the time was spent by Admiral Sampson's fleet in the pursuit of blockade runners and the guarding of ports. On the day that Admiral Dewey's ships started for Manila, three of the vessels of the blockading squadron engaged some Spanish land batteries at Matanzas, on the north coast of Cuba, fifty-two miles from Havana. New fortifications were being erected there, and the torpedo boat "Foote" had twice been fired on. Admiral Sampson felt that it was time he took some action.

The cruiser "New York," the flagship, led the way into the bay, followed by the monitor *Blanco's* "Puritan" and the cruiser "Cincinnati," which had been doing blockade duty at the port. In eighteen minutes the American vessels discharged eighty-six shots, killing several Spaniards and damaging the earthworks considerably. The Spanish forts fired about twenty-five shots, but not one of the American ships was hit. In spite of the

Matanzas, Cardenas, Cienfuegos

fact that the Spaniards had several killed and wounded, Captain-General Blanco, in his official report of the engagement to Madrid, gravely stated that all the damage done by the Americans was "one mule killed."

On May 11 vessels of Admiral Sampson's fleet had brief engagements with Spanish batteries on both the north and the south coasts of Cuba. The gunboat "Wilmington," the converted revenue cutter "Hudson," and the torpedo boat "Winslow" were making a reconnaissance of the harbor of Cardenas when batteries of which the Americans were ignorant opened fire. The torpedo boat's engines were disabled, her executive officer and four of her crew killed, and her commander and several others badly wounded. At Cienfuegos, at the south coast, one seaman was killed and several others wounded in a cable-cutting expedition in which the cruiser "Montgomery," the gunboat "Nashville," and the auxiliary cruiser "Win-dom" participated.

The Cardenas expedition was in charge of Commander Todd of the "Wilmington." He sent the "Winslow" along the eastern shore of the bay while the "Hudson" took the western shore in search of small

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Spanish vessels believed to have taken refuge there. Two deserted barks were anchored in the bay and the converging courses of the "Winslow" and "Hudson" brought them close together near the barks. These barks it was afterward learned had been placed there to mark the range. Spanish gunners in a masked battery were quick to seize the opportunity. A shell struck the "Winslow" on the starboard beam, and exploding in the engine-room disabled the starboard boiler and engine. The steering gear was carried away a minute later, and within five minutes the torpedo boat had been hit in twenty places.

Lieutenant Bernadou, commander of the "Winslow," bleeding from a wound in the thigh, signalled to the "Hudson" for assistance. With shells striking all around her, the little revenue cutter headed for her crippled mate. As the cutter neared the torpedo boat, Lieutenant Scott, commanding the after six-pounder of the "Hudson," ordered his men to cease firing and had one of them stand by with a heaving line for the "Winslow." Several of the "Winslow's" crew were clustered about the midship gun.

"Look out for the line," shouted Lieuten-

Matanzas, Cardenas, Cienfuegos

ant Scott. And, as one of the men on the "Winslow" turned to catch the coil, a shell cut through the after smokestack and exploded where the group stood, killing three men outright and wounding several others, two of them so badly that they died within half an hour.

Ensign Worth Bagley, the executive officer of the "Winslow," had his face blown off.

Death of Bagley The windpipe of John Van Veres, an oiler, was severed by a fragment of shell, and two firemen and the cabin cook received fatal wounds. Lieutenant Bernadou dragged himself along the deck of the "Winslow," encouraging his men and giving orders as to the handling of the boat. A line was finally got aboard the torpedo boat, but as soon as the "Hudson" started to tow her out, the line parted. A second line was made fast, and the cutter headed seaward, dragging her damaged consort out of the danger circle.

The "Marblehead," "Nashville," and "Windom," early on the morning of May 11, steamed up to the harbor of Cienfuegos. The commanders of the "Marblehead" and "Nashville" called for volunteers to man four small boats

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to cut the cable, and the men responded with a jump. The war-ships shelled the shores surrounding the harbor, remaining about one thousand yards off shore, and the launches put in closer to shore and began grappling for the cables. The cables lay deep in the harbor, and the launches were some time in finding them. One of the relays had just been located and cut, when Spanish troops in rifle-pits along the shore opened fire on the launches. The marines in the boats at once replied, a machine gun in the forward launch sending out a stream of bullets. The war-ships also began shelling the shores, and the Spanish riflemen were driven from their pits to a lighthouse, which had been fortified.

Spanish bullets were falling all around the launches, but the men went bravely on with their work. A seaman in one of the boats was killed and several others were wounded, but the work went on until a second relay of the cable had been picked up and cut, when the men returned to their ships.

The fire of the American ships was concentrated on a lighthouse garrisoned by Spaniards, the "Marblehead" and "Nashville" using their heaviest guns, as well as their smaller

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rapid-fire guns. A well-directed shot exploded in the lighthouse, damaging it greatly and killing and wounding many of the Spanish soldiers who had sought refuge there. This ended the battle, and the American ships withdrew, the "Marblehead," "Nashville," and "Windom" all bearing marks of the fray and many of their men having slight wounds.

CHAPTER XXIX

CERVERA AT SANTIAGO

WHILE the fleet under Admiral Sampson was cruising in Cuban waters, occasionally engaging some of the minor fortifications, frequently furnishing escorts for expeditions conveying food supplies and munitions of war to the insurgents, a fleet of Spanish war-ships commanded by Admiral Cervera was sailing westward from the Cape Verde Islands. This squadron comprised the strength of the Spanish navy, — the cruisers “Infanta Maria Teresa,” “Almirante Oquendo,” “Vizcaya,” and “Cristobal Colon,” and three torpedo boat destroyers, the “Furor,” “Terror,” and “Pluton.”

Leaving the Cape Verde Islands on April 29, the Spanish fleet arrived at St. Pierre, Martinique, southeast of Cuba, on May 11. Two of the torpedo boat destroyers entered the harbor where the converted American liner “Harvard” lay, but the authorities would not permit Captain Cotton to cable to



THE VIZCAYA IN NEW YORK HARBOR.
By permission of the New York Herald.

Cervera at Santiago

the Navy Department and the news of Cervera's arrival in western waters reached the government through newspaper correspondents. The next day the Spanish fleet departed in a northerly direction, the destroyer "Terror" being left behind at the port of Fort de France, Martinique, to watch the "Harvard" in port on the other side of the island. Both vessels prolonged their stay at Martinique on the plea of making repairs, but the "Terror" not long afterward made for San Juan, Porto Rico, where, being unable to join the rest of the fleet, she remained until the end of the war.

Admiral Cervera's fleet was next reported at Willemstad, Curaçao, having gone there in the expectation of meeting colliers which had been sent on ahead from Spain. Not finding the colliers, the Spanish ships took on some coal and provisions at Willemstad and then set sail for Santiago de Cuba, the capital and chief city of the province of Santiago, the extreme eastern division of Cuba, arriving there on May 19.

The flying squadron commanded by Commodore Schley had been held at Hampton Roads for fear the Spanish fleet might attempt to attack one of the

*Schley's
Movements*

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North Atlantic ports, but as soon as Cervera's arrival at Martinique was reported, Commodore Schley received orders to sail south. Putting in at Key West on May 18, he received despatches directing him to place himself under command of Acting Rear-Admiral Sampson, whom he ranked, against which he filed a formal protest. He was directed by Admiral Sampson to proceed at once to Cienfuegos on the south coast of Cuba, with the "Brooklyn," the "Massachusetts," and the "Texas," Admiral Sampson promising to let the "Iowa" follow at once. The flying squadron accordingly set sail for Cienfuegos on May 19, the day that the Spanish fleet arrived at Santiago.

The United States authorities in the plans of campaign seem to have entirely overlooked Santiago at first. Cienfuegos on the south coast was expressly mentioned in the blockade proclamation, but nothing was said about Santiago. The strategy board and the other naval authorities, when the Spanish fleet was reported at Martinique and again at Curaçao, took it for granted that Cervera would make for either Cienfuegos or Havana and acted accordingly. The result was that Admiral Cervera's fleet was at Santiago for several days before it became

Cervera at Santiago

known in the United States, the first information received being the announcements in the newspapers of Madrid. Even this news was looked upon as possibly a *ruse de guerre*.

Commodore Schley arrived off the harbor of Cienfuegos about midnight on May 21. Convinced that the Spanish fleet lay inside the harbor, he remained there until May 24, when the "Marblehead" arrived from Key West with the information that the Spanish fleet was probably at Santiago and with orders for him to proceed to Santiago at once. Later in the day he received positive information from trustworthy Cubans that the Spanish fleet was not in Cienfuegos harbor, and the flying squadron at once set sail for Santiago, leaving the "Castine" on guard at Cienfuegos.

When the flying squadron arrived off Santiago on May 26, Commodore Schley found there the "Minneapolis," "St. Paul," *Cervera* and "Yale," which had been doing "bottled up" scout duty in that vicinity. All reported that they had seen nothing of the Spanish ships, but strong belief was expressed that the fleet was there, although this view was apparently not credited by Commodore Schley. It had been the intention of the authorities that

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he should blockade Santiago, but he had already cabled that his short supply of coal would not permit him to do this, and on the evening of May 26 he ordered his fleet to start for Key West. Fortunately the collier "Merrimac" broke down, and during the delay that followed the "Harvard" arrived with despatches ordering Commodore Schley not to leave Santiago and conveying the information that Admiral Sampson's fleet would soon arrive there.

On Sunday, May 29, the squadron, led by the "Brooklyn," made a swinging circle in shore, and the "Cristobal Colon" and a cruiser of the "Vizcaya" type were recognized, lying inside the harbor beyond Morro Castle. Commodore Schley promptly cabled the Navy Department that he had the Spanish fleet "bottled up" at Santiago, adding, "And they'll never get home."

Not many hours after this, Admiral Sampson arrived with some of the more powerful ships of the blockading squadron, on which was one young man destined to make himself famous before many days elapsed.

CHAPTER XXX

HOBSON'S HEROIC DEED

ASSISTANT Naval Constructor Richmond Pearson Hobson, at four o'clock in the morning of June 3, with a crew of seven men, ran the collier "Merrimac" into the harbor of Santiago, swung her across the channel and sank her, under heavy Spanish fire. All the eight men were taken prisoners and exchanged thirty-three days later, just before the fall of Santiago. With Hobson were George Charette, Oscar Deignan, John Kelly, Daniel Montague, J. E. Murphy, John E. Phillips, and Rudolph Clausen. Perhaps no greater tribute to their bravery exists than the message sent by Admiral Cervera, commander of the Spanish fleet, to Admiral Sampson. After Hobson and his comrades had been taken prisoners said Admiral Cervera:

"Your boys will be all right in our hands. Daring like theirs makes the bitterest enemy proud that his fellow-men can be such heroes. They were taken after-

*Cervera's
Tribute*

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ward to the city of Santiago and thence to Santiago's Morro, where they are our prisoners, but our friends. Everything is being done to make their stay with us comfortable. If you wish to send them anything, we will cheerfully take it to them."

Santiago's harbor channel was narrow and tortuous. It was impossible for more than one large vessel at a time to pass into the inner harbor, where the fleet of Admiral Cervera lay. It was realized that dark and stormy nights not only gave an opportunity for the Spanish torpedo boat destroyers to attack the American battle-ships and cruisers, but also made it possible for Admiral Cervera to slip away with his larger vessels. To "bottle up" the Spanish fleet more securely, several plans were suggested, but it was the one submitted by Hobson that found the most favor. Hobson's plan briefly was to take a vessel into the harbor, torpedo her in the channel, and escape in a small boat.

While the "Merrimac" was being fitted up, Admiral Sampson called for volunteers among the enlisted men to accompany Hobson on the perilous expedition right under the Spanish batteries, from which there seemed to be little

Hobson's Heroic Deed

hope of returning alive. More than two hundred men on the flagship "New York" and about an equal number on the "Iowa" volunteered. Hobson at first selected six, but Clausen, who had volunteered, remained on the "Merrimac" at Hobson's request. Hobson, on the day he gained his freedom, gave this account of his experiences:—

"It was about three o'clock in the morning when the 'Merrimac' entered the narrow channel and steamed *Hobson's* in under the guns of Morro Castle. The *own Story* stillness of death prevailed. It was so dark we could scarcely see the headland. We had planned to drop our starboard anchor at a certain point to the right of the channel, reverse our engines, and then swing the 'Merrimac' around, sinking her directly across the channel. This plan was adhered to, but circumstances rendered its execution impossible. When the 'Merrimac' poked her nose into the channel our troubles commenced. The deadly silence was broken by the swash of a small boat approaching us from the shore. I made her out to be a picket boat.

"She ran close up under the stern of the 'Merrimac' and fired several shots from what seemed to be three-pounder guns. The 'Merrimac's' rudder was carried away by this fire. That is why the collier was not sunk across the channel. We did not discover the

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loss of the rudder until Murphy had cast anchor. We then found that the 'Merrimac' would not answer to the helm and were compelled to make the best of the situation. The run up the channel was very exciting. The picket boat had given the alarm, and in a moment the guns of the 'Vizcaya,' the 'Almirante Oquendo,' and the shore batteries were turned upon us.

"Submarine mines and torpedoes were exploded all around us, adding to the excitement. The mines did no damage, although we could hear the rumbling and feel the ship tremble. We were running without lights, and only the darkness saved us from utter destruction. When the ship was in the desired position, and we found that the rudder was gone, I called the men on deck. While they were launching the catamaran I touched off the explosives. At the same time two torpedoes, fired by the 'Reina Mercedes,' struck the 'Merrimac' amidships. I cannot say whether our own explosives or the Spanish torpedoes did the work, but the 'Merrimac' was lifted out of the water and almost rent asunder.

"As she settled down we scrambled overboard and cut away the catamaran. A great cheer went up from the forts and the war-ships as the hold of the collier foundered, the Spaniards thinking that the 'Merrimac' was an American war-ship. We attempted to get out of the harbor in the catamaran, but a strong tide was running, and daylight found us still struggling

Hobson's Heroic Deed

in the water. Then for the first time the Spaniards saw us, and a boat from the 'Reina Mercedes' picked us up. It was then shortly after five o'clock in the morning, and we had been in the water more than an hour. We were taken aboard the 'Reina Mercedes' and later were sent to Morro Castle."

While Hobson and his men were sinking the "Merrimac" Rear-Admiral Sampson paced *Powell's* the deck of his flagship, his eyes fixed *Bravery* on the harbor entrance. The launch of the "New York," with Cadet Powell in command, had been sent close in shore to pick up Hobson and his men if they succeeded in escaping on the catamaran. Powell waited until daylight, when the Spanish batteries opened fire on the launch. Although he sailed right up under the batteries, he could see nothing of the catamaran. Giving up all hope of being able to rescue Hobson and his men, he returned to the flagship. All he could report was that he had seen the "Merrimac's" mast sticking up out of the water just where Hobson hoped to sink her, north of the Estrella battery.

This led Admiral Sampson and his officers to believe that the attempt was successful, but

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of the fate of Hobson and his men they knew nothing until Admiral Cervera's chief of staff, Captain Bustamente y Okedo, came out in a launch under a flag of truce and informed them that the eight men were all prisoners.

CHAPTER XXXI

FIGHTING AT GUANTANAMO

WHEN Admiral Cervera's fleet had been "bottled up" in the harbor of Santiago de Cuba, plans were at once made by the War Department, in Washington, for sending the Fifth Army Corps, under General Shafter, to Cuba. Wild rumors of a Spanish fleet off the coast of Florida delayed the sailing of transports from Tampa for several days. Meanwhile eight hundred and fifty marines, under the expectation that Shafter's troops would quickly arrive to support them, established a base in the harbor of Guantanamo, twenty miles or more to the east of Santiago.

The landing was made on Thursday, June 9, after a brief engagement, in which a regiment of Spanish infantry was driven from its position. The marines were disembarked under the protection of the guns of the "Oregon," "Marblehead," and the "Yosemite." This first landing in force on Cuban soil was accomplished in broad daylight.

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Early on Thursday morning Admiral Sampson ordered the "Panther," on which were eight hundred and fifty marines from the New York Navy Yard, to proceed from off Santiago to Guantanamo. Before the "Panther" arrived at Guantanamo the "Oregon" and the "Marblehead" opened fire on the blockhouse and cable station at the mouth of the harbor of Guantanamo, where the regiment of Spanish infantry was quartered. A shower of six-inch shells quickly demolished the cable station, and the Spanish fled.

Captain Goodsell, of the marines, who had been on the "Oregon," with sixty men, landed about eleven o'clock in the morning, and selected a camp site on Crest Heights, a point overlooking the harbor. Before Captain Goodsell and his men finished their work, the "Panther," with the rest of the marines on board, arrived, escorted by the "Yosemite." In whaleboats, towed by launches, the entire force of marines was quickly put ashore. As the men landed they formed under command of Lieutenant-Colonel Huntington, and quickly advanced to Crest Heights. Within an hour the whole force was landed without accident.

As it was known that a force of several thou-



TROOPS PREPARING TO EMBARK.
By permission of the New York Herald.

Fighting at Guantanamo

sand Spaniards was assembled within five miles of Crest Heights, the marines at once began the work of fortifying their camp, and by half-*Old Glory* past three o'clock in the afternoon *hoisted* several guns had been mounted, ready for action. A little over an hour before, Color Sergeant Richard Silvey, of Company C, First Battalion of Marines, raised the stars and stripes over the smouldering ruins of the block-house.

This camp on Crest Heights, at the mouth of the harbor of Guantanamo, was attacked by the Spaniards in force on the afternoon of Saturday, June 11. Guerillas and regulars of the enemy's forces fought the marines from the shelter of the bushes and undergrowth surrounding Crest Heights, and were only driven off after thirteen hours' almost continuous skirmishing, at six o'clock on Sunday morning, when reinforcements were landed from the cruiser "Marblehead." The Americans had four killed and one wounded, while the Spanish loss was heavier. Among the Americans killed was Assistant Surgeon John Blair Gibbs, the son of an officer in the regular army, who had given up a lucrative practice in New York City to serve his country.

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The engagement began with desultory firing at the pickets a thousand yards from the camp. A company under Captain Spicer, which was doing guard duty, was driven back to camp. Privates Dunphy and McColgan fell in the first skirmish, both being shot in the head. Their bodies were found in the woods the next morning, and the frightful wounds made by the Mauser bullets gave rise to the mistaken impression that the bodies had been mutilated by the Spaniards.

The main attack came shortly after midnight. The Spaniards made a gallant charge up the *Marines'* southwest slope of the camp, but were *Bravery* met by repeated volleys from the main body of the marines, and broke before they were one-third of the way up the hill. So close did the opposing forces come that at times there was almost hand-to-hand fighting, and the American officers used their revolvers.

The attacks were continued at intervals throughout the night with firing from small squads in various directions. Toward morning the Spaniards' fire slackened. Expecting an attack at dawn, the marines were ready, but no attack came. Some of them, worn by forty-eight hours of labor and fighting, with

Fighting at Guantanamo

no rest, fell asleep by their guns. It was the first time under fire for many of the marines, but their officers had no fault to find with their conduct. They fought as bravely and as skillfully as veteran troops.

For several days the marines had little chance for rest or sleep. All day Sunday the wearied men were kept at work throwing up earthworks on all sides of the camp, and Sunday evening found them stationed in the trenches, ready to repel an attack. Marines from the "Texas" and "Marblehead" reinforced them, and some Cuban troops were landed by American vessels near the camp. It was about eight o'clock in the evening that the Spaniards again advanced, and from that time until three o'clock in the morning there was almost continuous skirmishing. Sergeant-Major Henry Goode, of the marines, and a private were killed, and four other privates were wounded. At daylight the Cuban scouts reported that the Spanish troops had withdrawn some distance.

There was a lull in hostilities on Monday, and the marines not only gained much-needed rest, but a force of Cubans, accompanied by three battalions of the marines, had established

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strong outposts a mile inland from the camp on Crest Heights, which had been christened "Camp McCalla." Lieutenant-Colonel Huntington on Tuesday morning found his men so much refreshed after the first night free from fighting, that he decided to advance on the Spaniards and drive them from the vicinity of Camp McCalla.

The Spaniards were encamped about four miles distant from Camp McCalla, where *Spaniards* there were the only wells in the vicinity, and where there was also a block-house. As the marines advanced toward this camp their skirmish line discovered the Spaniards in the underbrush only half a mile from Camp McCalla. Orders to attack were given immediately, and Americans and Cubans rushed forward in splendid form, charging the enemy with great boldness.

The action was sharp and spirited. For a time the onslaught of the marines was strongly resisted, but the enemy was finally forced to retreat. The Americans pressed on after the fleeing Spaniards and did not give up the pursuit until they had put the enemy's forces completely to rout and had made useless their water supply. The Spaniards made a final

Fighting at Guantanamo

stand in the vicinity of the blockhouse, and there forty bodies of Spaniards lay in the field when the firing ceased.

There were two of the Cubans killed and four of them wounded, and two of the American marines wounded, but not seriously. At least half a hundred Spaniards had been killed in the fighting and many more of them captured. In addition to these men, Lieutenant Francis Batista, with a corporal and eighteen privates, were taken prisoners and were placed on board the American war-ships in the harbor.

CHAPTER XXXII

FUNDS FOR HOSTILITIES

WHILE the land and naval forces of the United States were harassing the Spaniards in Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines, the authorities in Washington were devising means for furnishing the sinews for war, and for vigorous war. A measure known as the War Tax Bill, after several conferences between committees of the upper and lower houses, was finally adopted by both the Senate and the House of Representatives, and became law on June 13, when it received the signature of President McKinley. This revenue measure provided for raising war funds in two ways,—an amount not to exceed \$400,000,000 for immediate use, to be raised by a popular bond issue, and an estimated amount of \$200,000,000 a year, to be raised by internal taxation.

A tax of \$2 a barrel was imposed on beer
Tobacco and and similar fermented liquors. Deal-
Liquor taxed ers in leaf tobacco whose annual sales did not exceed 50,000 pounds were re-

Funds for Hostilities

quired to pay \$6; those whose sales did not exceed 100,000 pounds, \$12, and those whose sales exceeded 100,000 pounds, \$24.

A tax of twelve cents a pound was imposed on all tobacco and snuff manufactured and sold or removed for consumption. On cigars and cigarettes taxes had to be paid by manufacturers,—\$3.60 per thousand on cigars weighing more than three pounds per thousand, and \$1.50 per thousand on cigarettes weighing not more than three pounds per thousand.

After July 1, 1898, bankers on a capital of \$25,000 had to pay \$50, and \$2 additional for each additional thousand dollars. Brokers' taxes ranged from \$10 to \$50; pawnbrokers were taxed \$20; proprietors of theatres, \$100, and circuses, \$100.

It was provided that revenue stamps of varying amounts had to be placed on telegraph messages, bonds, debentures, bank checks, drafts, certificates of deposit, bills of lading, receipts, insurance policies, deeds, notes, leases, and nearly all classes of commercial paper. Chewing gum and parlor-car seats, sleeping-car berths, proprietary medicines and perfumes, and scores of other things were included under the stamp tax.

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Taxes on inheritances and legacies exceeding
Legacies \$10,000 in personal property were
levied on thus levied:—

On sums between \$10,000 and \$25,000 in benefits to the lineal issue or lineal ancestor, brother or sister of the deceased, at the rate of seventy-five cents for every \$100: to the descendant of a brother or sister, at the rate of \$1.50 for every \$100; to the mother or the sister of the father or mother, or a descendant of a brother or sister of the father or mother, at the rate of \$3 for every \$100; to the brother or sister of the grandfather or grandmother, or a descendant of the brother or the sister of the grandfather or grandmother, \$4 for every \$100; to those of any other degree of collateral consanguinity or strangers in blood, or a body politic or corporate, at the rate of \$5 for every \$100; legacies to husbands or wives were exempted. The rates increased with sums above \$25,000.

In addition to these taxes, the Secretary of the Treasury was authorized to borrow from time to time, at a rate of interest not exceeding three per cent, such sums as were necessary to meet public expenditures, and to issue certificates of indebtedness in sums not exceeding

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\$50, the amount of such certificates outstanding at no time to exceed \$100,000,000.

The Secretary of the Treasury was also authorized to borrow on the credit of the *War Bonds* United States from time to time, as *issued* the proceeds were required to defray expenditures authorized on account of the war, and only on that account, the sum of \$400,000,000, and to prepare and issue therefor coupon or registered bonds of the United States in denominations of \$20 or some multiple of that sum, redeemable in coin at the pleasure of the United States, after ten years from their date of issue, and payable twenty years after such date, and bearing interest payable quarterly in coin at the rate of three per cent per annum, the bonds to be first offered at par as a popular loan.

These bonds were subscribed for more than three times over, and all of them were awarded in small lots, bankers and capitalists generally failing in their efforts to obtain them.

CHAPTER XXXIII

THE SEIZURE OF GUAM

ONE of the bloodless victories of the United States during the war with Spain was the seizure of Guam, in the Ladrone Islands, on June 21, by Captain Glass, of the cruiser "Charleston." The object of seizing these Spanish possessions in the Pacific was to provide the United States with a base for coaling, and at the same time deprive Spain of some of her territory. After the destruction of the Spanish fleet in the Philippines by Rear-Admiral Dewey and the appointment of Major-General Wesley Merritt as military governor of the islands, no less than four expeditions of the United States troops were despatched to the Philippines on transports from the port of San Francisco. It was one of these expeditions, convoyed by the cruiser "Charleston," that seized Guam.

It was on the morning of June 20 that the "Charleston," with three troop-ships following, sighted the island of Guam. The transports

The Seizure of Guam

remained off the island, while the "Charleston" headed up through the channel in the coral reef that makes San Luis de Apra the best harbor in the middle Pacific. The "Charleston" sent thirteen shells from her forward three-pounder into the fortress of Santa Cruz, shortening her range with each shot. As the fortress did not reply, it became evident that the defence had been abandoned.

The "Charleston" opened fire on the fort at half-past nine o'clock in the morning. At *Not notified of the War* half-past ten a small boat containing three Spanish officials put off to the "Charleston." The officials were the captain of the port, Lieutenant Commander José Garcia y Gutierrez, of the Spanish navy, and Dr. José Romero, port surgeon. The officials came on board entirely ignorant of the fact that war had been declared between the United States and Spain, and making most profuse apologies that the lack of ammunition at Santa Cruz made it impossible for them to return the "Charleston's" salute.

Greatly to their surprise, the Spanish officials were conducted to Captain Glass's cabin, where they were informed that they were prisoners of war. They were ordered to convey to the

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Governor of the Ladrões, Don Juan Marina, a demand that he come upon the "Charleston." Paroled to deliver this message, the Spanish officials were sent ashore. In the afternoon Captain Duarte, the governor's secretary, and an interpreter boarded the "Charleston," with a letter from the governor. Don Juan Marina, taken by surprise, was playing for delay. His letter stated that under the Spanish law it was impossible for him to come aboard a foreign man-of-war.

Captain Glass was in a hurry to proceed to the Philippines. The next morning he sent Lieutenant Braunersreuther, Ensign Evans, and half a dozen well-armed sailors to Piti, the landing of the harbor. Lieutenant Braunersreuther bore a letter from Captain Glass to the Governor of the Ladrões, demanding the immediate surrender of the islands without conditions. Lieutenant Braunersreuther was instructed to allow only half an hour for the consideration of the demand. It was a quarter past ten when the Americans stepped ashore at the landing stage at Piti. The Spanish officials met them at the boat stairs and, with profuse politeness, offered to escort them to the house of the captain of the port. This courtesy was

The Seizure of Guam

refused and the letter from Captain Glass delivered.

Governor Marina expressed some surprise at the peremptory character of the demand made *Half an Hour for Surrender* under the stars and stripes, but retired to the house of the port captain to consider the demand. Twenty-five minutes had elapsed when the Spanish governor and the three officials who had taken part in the conference, the port captain, the port surgeon, and Captain Duarte, commanding the Spanish infantry on the island, returned to the landing with a sealed letter, addressed to Captain Glass. Lieutenant Braunersreuther promptly broke the seal, opened the letter, and handed it to an interpreter to read. It was a surrender in due form, without conditions, of everything in the way of troops and military supplies on the island of Guam. The governor only stipulated, to save himself at Madrid, that he yielded to superior force and in total ignorance, so far as information from his own government was concerned, that a state of war existed.

After his surrender the governor was informed that he must have his garrison, with

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all its arms and munitions of war, at Piti at four o'clock that afternoon, and must accompany Lieutenant Braunersreuther back to the "Charleston." He made some demur, but a messenger was sent to Agana to tell the troops to march down to the port, where they were disarmed and placed on board the transport "Sydney." The officials were first taken on board the "Charleston" and later transferred to the "Sydney." The guns, ammunition, and flags seized were kept on the "Charleston," and the next day the expedition went on its way to the Philippines.

On the afternoon of June 21, the stars and stripes were raised over Fort Santa Cruz, and as the "Charleston" fired a salute of twenty-one guns Captain Glass formally declared the island to be in the possession of the United States.

CHAPTER XXXIV

AGUINALDO'S VICTORIES

HARDLY had Admiral Dewey destroyed the Spanish fleet at Cavite, in the Philippines, before there arrived there "General" Aguinaldo, a leader of the Filipinos in a previous rising against the Spanish authorities. When General Primo de Rivera, General Augustin's predecessor as Captain-General of the Philippines, had purchased peace, Aguinaldo and the other insurgent leaders had gone to Hong Kong. Returning now to Cavite, Aguinaldo soon gathered around him a strong and ever-increasing force of armed and unarmed natives, some of the native troops in the Spanish army deserting to his cause. Soon after his arrival he issued three proclamations.

The first of these proclamations stated that he had surrendered his arms and handed over *Aguinaldo's* a strong army to the Spaniards, believing it would be more beneficial to the country than carrying on the insurrection with poor resources. None of the

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promised reforms had been fulfilled in five months, and the Spaniards seemed impotent in the hands of the friars, who constantly placed obstacles in the way of progress. As the great and powerful United States had come forward to offer disinterested protection, that the natives might gain liberty for their country, he had returned to command the army, and proposed to establish a dictatorship, with an advisory council, until the islands were completely dominated. An assembly, constitutional and republican, would then be formed, and when a President and Cabinet had been elected Aguinaldo would hand over the command of the army.

In his second proclamation Aguinaldo forbade all attempts at negotiations between the rebels and Spaniards for peace, in view of the failure of previous negotiations, both civil and military. He announced that Spaniards coming to parley without a flag of truce and proper credentials would be shot as spies. Any Filipino undertaking such a commission would be considered a traitor and would be condemned to be hanged with the placard attached to his body bearing the words, "Traitor to his country."

Aguinaldo's Victories

The third proclamation, to which was largely
Orders to due the friendly relations at first
Filipinos maintained between the American
forces and the insurgents, read : —

“ Filipinos :

“ The great North American nation, a lover of true liberty, and therefore desirous of liberating our country from the tyranny and despotism to which it has been subjected by its rulers, has shown us decided disinterested protection, considering us sufficiently able and civilized to govern this unhappy shore.

“ In order to retain this high opinion of the never too highly praised and great nation of North America, we should abominate such acts as pillage and robbery of every description and acts of violence against persons and property. To avoid international complications during the campaign I order : —

“ First, lives and property of all foreigners are to be respected, including Chinese and those Spanish who neither directly nor indirectly have taken up arms against us.

“ Secondly, the lives and property of our enemies who lay down their arms are to be equally respected.

“ Thirdly, in the same way all hospitals and all ambulances, together with the persons and effects therein, as well as their staffs, are to be respected unless they show themselves hostile.

“ Fourthly, those who disobey what is set forth in

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the three former articles will be tried by summary court-martial and shot, if by such disobedience there have been caused assassination, fires, robbery, or violence.”

Admiral Dewey, being without land forces to follow up his victory over the Spanish *Insurgent* navy, by force contented himself *Victories* with guarding the bay of Manila, while he waited the arrival of General Merritt and his troops from the United States. Aguinaldo, expecting the Americans to support his claims, within two weeks after his arrival had assembled a force of three thousand armed men and had fought many skirmishes. He had captured two good batteries and was in possession of the entire province of Cavite. Sixteen hundred Spaniards had been taken prisoners and several hundred killed or wounded. Two thousand rifles purchased abroad had been supplied to the rebels, and they had taken two thousand magazine rifles and six field-guns from the Spaniards.

With Admiral Dewey controlling the bay and Aguinaldo the territory surrounding Manila, the residents of the Philippine capital, cut off from supplies, awaited the inevitable capitulation that must follow the arrival of the strong armies being hurried from San Francisco.



MAJOR-GENERAL MERRITT.

CHAPTER XXXV

BOMBARDMENTS OF SANTIAGO

COMMODORE SCHLEY, while off Santiago awaiting the arrival of Admiral Sampson's fleet, sent a few shells into the Spanish batteries at the mouth of the harbor, but it was not until Monday, June 6, after Admiral Sampson's arrival, that the harbor fortifications were bombarded in earnest. On that day, after an engagement lasting nearly three hours, Admiral Sampson cabled to the Navy Department in Washington that he had silenced the forts at Santiago without injury of any kind.

While it was true that Admiral Sampson did considerable damage to the Spanish batteries, it was later discovered that the men at the enemy's guns had retired when the American fire became too hot, and that the batteries were capable of doing considerable damage still. The Spanish loss was seven killed and about forty wounded. The Americans had only one man slightly wounded. The batteries of the Spaniards engaged were those of

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Morro Castle, Estrella, Caro, and Punta Gorda. The guns in some of these batteries were manned by men from the fleet of Admiral Cervera, which was bottled up in Santiago harbor.

The American ships about six o'clock in the morning slowly moved to within three thousand yards of the shore. The first *Formation of the Fleet* line, composed of the "Brooklyn," "Texas," "Massachusetts," and "Marblehead," turned westward. Commodore Schley's flagship, the cruiser "Brooklyn," was in the lead. In the second line was Admiral Sampson's flagship, the "New York," with the battle-ships "Oregon" and "Iowa," and the cruisers "New Orleans" and "Yankee." Led by the flagship, the second line moved eastward. Far out on the left were the "Vixen" and the "Suwanee," whose crews watched the riflemen on shore. The "Dolphin" and the "Porter" formed the right guard. Apparently the movement of the ships had not been noticed until they were close up to the batteries, and a heavy shot from the "Iowa" struck one of the batteries, with serious effect.

Admiral Sampson's column directed its attention to some new earthworks near Morro

Bombardments of Santiago

Castle, while Commodore Schley's ships shelled the Estrella and Catalena batteries. Both columns poured a fusillade of heavy missiles into the fortifications on either side of the harbor, firing in all about fifteen hundred shots. The Spanish fire at first was spirited, but the aim of the gunners was poor, and it was ineffective. Admiral Sampson had issued orders that no shots should be fired at Morro, fearing to injure Hobson, but several shells did strike the castle.

As the bombardment proceeded, the ships in Commodore Schley's column moved nearer to the shore in order to bring speedier *Batteries silenced* destruction to the shore batteries. This action resulted in the "Texas," "Massachusetts," and "Brooklyn" dealing such awful broadsides that the earthworks were torn up and the Spanish gunners took to their heels for a less exposed place. The main interest in Schley's column was centred on the Estrella fortification. This fort offered great resistance, but when the "Texas" and the "Marblehead" trained their guns upon it at close range the woodwork of the fortification was set on fire and the guns were silenced.

In the eastward column, where Admiral

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Sampson was watching the attack, the American gunners were doing their duty in the same glorious manner. Cayo battery was silenced by the "New York" and the "New Orleans." The guns in this battery were dismounted and the defence was wrecked. At the close of the second hour of the engagement the vessels of the American fleet turned so they could use the port batteries. Part of the time the firing was not accurate because of the location of several of the fortified points on shore. Shell after shell was thrown into the Spanish fortifications until ten o'clock. There were no longer any replies from the enemy's batteries, and Admiral Sampson signalled for the ships to stop the bombardment.

The dynamite gun vessel "Vesuvius" soon joined Admiral Sampson's command, and on *Work of the* two different nights made attempts "Vesuvius" to destroy the Spanish torpedo boat destroyers, which were supposed to be lying in an angle of the harbor near El Morro. Steaming quietly up close to the shore, the "Vesuvius" had let fly several 250-pound shells of gun-cotton. There was only a peculiar rasping cough as these missiles, discharged by compressed air, left the guns. But an instant

Bombardments of Santiago

later, as the shells dropped back of the low hills into the bay, there were heard most terrific explosions. What damage was done by the shells that fell behind the hills the Americans had no means of knowing, but one charge that exploded on Cayo Smith tore an immense hole in the rocks.

It was after the second of the "Vesuvius" attacks, on the morning of Thursday, June 16, *The Third Bombardment* that Admiral Sampson bombarded the outer fortifications of Santiago for a third time. At a five-knot speed the ships steamed to a 3,000 yard range, where they closed up, broadside on, until a distance of three cable-lengths separated them. They were strung out in the form of a crescent, the heavy fighting ships in the centre, the flagship "New York" on the right flank, and the battle-ship "Massachusetts" on the left flank. The line remained stationary throughout the bombardment. The "Vixen" and "Scorpion" took up positions on opposite flanks, close in shore, for the purpose of enfilading any infantry that might fire on the ships. When the ships got into position it was still too dark for firing. The admiral signalled the ships not to fire until the muzzles of the

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enemy's guns in the embrasures could be seen by the gun captains.

They kept the line quietly for fifteen minutes until a little after five o'clock, when the "New York" opened with a broadside from her main battery at the works on the east of the entrance to the harbor. All the ships followed in red streaks of flame. The fleet, enveloped in smoke, pelted the hills and kicked up dirt and masonry. Though the gun captains had been cautioned not to waste ammunition, and to fire with caution, the firing was so rapid as to make almost a continuous report. The measured crash of the thirteen-inch guns of the battle-ships sounded above the rattle of the smaller guns of the secondary batteries, like thunder-claps in a hurricane. A strong land breeze off shore carried the smoke of the ships seaward, while it let down a thick curtain over the Spanish gunners. The Spanish gunners at first replied with spirit, but their fire was not a match for the skilled gunnery of the Americans.

Admiral Sampson's ordnance expert had given explicit directions to reduce the charges and elevate the guns, so as to shorten the trajectory and thus give a plunging fire, as the

Bombardments of Santiago

shells in previous bombardments had frequently fallen far over the fortifications. The effect of the reduced charges was marvellous. In fifteen minutes one western battery was completely wrecked. The "Massachusetts" tore a gaping hole in the emplacement with one of her heavy shells. The "Texas" dropped a shell into the powder magazine, and the explosion following wrought terrific havoc.

The batteries on the east of Morro were harder to get at, but the "New Orleans," approaching to within five hundred yards of the shore, played a tattoo on the batteries with her eight-inch guns, one shot striking a Spanish gun on the muzzle and knocking it off its trunnions. Several times during the bombardment Admiral Sampson signalled the ships to temporarily cease firing to allow the smoke to clear away. When the order came at half-past six to cease firing, not a Spanish gun had been heard from for ten minutes.

CHAPTER XXXVI

THE SHAFTER EXPEDITION

WHILE the fleet under Rear-Admiral Sampson was shelling the outer fortifications of Santiago, and while the marines under Lieutenant-Colonel Huntington were so bravely defending their camp at Guantanamo, they daily expected the arrival of an army to attack the city of Santiago by land.

The Fifth Army Corps, under Major-General William R. Shafter, had been mobilized *Sailed on* at Tampa. There was some delay *June 14* in assembling a sufficient number of transports to carry so large a force, but on Wednesday, June 8, all the troops had embarked. The expedition was about to start when orders came from Washington to hold the transports, a false rumor of the presence of some Spanish ships along the north coast of Cuba being responsible for the delay. Day after day the troops waited and suffered on the transports; but it was not until Tuesday, June 14, that the start was finally made.

The Shafter Expedition

A strong convoy of war-ships sent by Admiral Sampson escorted the unarmed transports to Santiago. The convoy included the battleship "Indiana," the "Helena," the "Castine," the "Detroit," the "Bancroft," the "Manning," the "Oceolot," the "Wampatuck," the "Hornet," and the torpedo boats "Ericsson" and "Porter." There were in all thirty transports.

The trip to Santiago was made almost without incident, save such slight mishaps as the loss of a water barge which one of the vessels had in tow. Each day at eight bells the fleet hove to, and the "Olivette," which was used as a hospital ship, ran alongside each of the transports to take off any of the troops that might be ill. Several cases of typhoid fever and measles developed during the journey.

In the expedition commanded by General Shafter there were 773 officers and 14,564 enlisted men. The infantry force consisted of the First, Second, Third, Sixth, Seventh, Eighth, Ninth, Tenth, Twelfth, Thirteenth, Sixteenth, Seventeenth, Twentieth, Twenty-first, Twenty-second, and Twenty-fourth United States Regulars; the Seventy-first New York Volunteers, and the

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Second Massachusetts Volunteers, the total infantry force amounting to 561 officers and 10,709 enlisted men.

The cavalry complement included two dismounted squadrons of four troops each, from the First, Third, Sixth, Ninth, and Tenth United States Regular Cavalry, and two dismounted troops from the First United States Volunteer Cavalry, commanded by Colonel Leonard Wood, with Lieutenant-Colonel Theodore Roosevelt second in command. This was the organization known as the "Roosevelt Rough Riders," which was made up of ranchmen from the West and college athletes and sportsmen from the East. It included many sons of prominent families of New York, among others, Hamilton Fish, William Tiffany, and Craig Wadsworth. The dismounted cavalry force numbered in all 158 officers and 2,875 enlisted men. There was also one squadron of the Second United States Cavalry, which took its horses with it. In this squadron there were nine officers and 280 enlisted men. The mountainous nature of the country around Santiago and the lack of transports were the causes of so many of the cavalrymen being sent to Cuba without their horses.

The Shafter Expedition

General Shafter's artillery force consisted of Light Batteries E and K, of the First United States Artillery; Light Batteries A and F, of the Second United States Artillery, — in all 14 officers and 323 enlisted men; Batteries G and H, of the Fourth Artillery, which were siege batteries, 4 officers and 132 enlisted men. There were also two companies of engineers and fifteen staff officers, besides about fifty newspaper correspondents and representatives of the armies and navies of Europe.

It was on Monday, June 20, that the transports arrived off Santiago de Cuba. Admiral *Arrival at* Sampson was promptly advised of the *Santiago* approach of the Shafter expedition by the "Rodgers" and the "Ericsson," and at once sent Captain Chadwick, of the flagship "New York," to receive General Shafter. Captain Chadwick steamed up to the transports on the "Gloucester" and acquainted General Shafter with the location of several points which the fleet had selected as available for disembarking the troops. Captain Chadwick advised General Shafter that the transports be kept out of sight of land until the point at which the troops were to go ashore had been finally selected. General Shafter accepted the

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suggestion and the troop-ships remained twenty miles out at sea.

Almost at the same time with the arrival of General Shafter's troops General Calixto Garcia, *Conference with Garcia* a Cuban veteran, appeared at Acerraderos, about fifteen miles west of Santiago. He had with him a force of 4,000 Cubans and thirteen field-guns. Arrangements were at once made for a conference between General Garcia, General Shafter, and Acting Rear-Admiral Sampson.

Soon after the fleet of transports had stopped twenty miles off Santiago, transport No. 12, with General Shafter aboard, approached the flagship. Admiral Sampson went aboard, and fifteen minutes later the transport headed west and quickly steamed to Acerraderos, twenty miles away, where a Cuban flag on the hill indicated General Garcia's camp. With only the "Marblehead" lying off shore to protect them, without military escort of any kind, General Shafter and his staff and Admiral Sampson and Lieutenant Staunton landed in a small boat within twelve miles of twelve thousand Spanish soldiers. A ragged escort of Cubans conducted the Americans up a rock road a mile inland to Garcia's camp.

The Shafter Expedition

In a palm-roofed hut, seated on boxes, the two generals and the admiral discussed plans for the capture of Santiago. Five negro sentries, naked to the waist, stood outside, and around was a motley gathering in which ragged but well-armed Cuban officers rubbed shoulders with the Americans.

It was one of the remarkable pictures of the war. Colonel John Jacob Astor stood side by side with a half-naked negro. General Ludlow, of the engineers; Captain Stewart Brice, a son of the former United States Senator; Captain Lee, a British army officer, and others of the Americans conversed with Cubans in friendly familiarity. Colonel Goetzen, the German attaché, in spotless white linen, and a barefooted Cuban officer tried conversation about the war in the sign language. Within the tent the heads of the three leaders were bent over blue print maps. Garcia, the most familiar with the country around Santiago, outlined a plan which was approved by General Shafter, but not by Admiral Sampson. After some discussion it was decided that Shafter should disembark his troops and push them forward toward the city at once.

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While the transports were sailing from Tampa to Santiago the marines at Guantanamo had not been idle. The "Marblehead" and "Dolphin" had cleared the harbor of mines and the cable station at Plaza del Este had been repaired, establishing communication with the Mole St. Nicholas. Officials of the War and Navy Departments in Washington were informed of the landing of Shafter's army near Baiquiri, a few miles from Santiago, by the receipt of despatches from the newly opened cable station at Playa del Este on the evening of June 22.

CHAPTER XXXVII

BATTLE OF LAS GUASIMAS

Six thousand American soldiers had disembarked from General Shafter's transports at the Sigua Iron Company's dock at Baiquiri by the evening of Wednesday, June 22. Ten thousand more were ready to follow them ashore the next day. Several thousand Cubans were encamped in the hills surrounding. General Shafter remained aboard the transport "Seguranca" directing the disembarkation. General Joseph Wheeler, in charge of the cavalry division, was directing the movements of the troops ashore. The Spaniards had as yet made no resistance.

Admiral Sampson on Wednesday morning had made a feint of bombarding the batteries of Juragua to draw off the attention of the Spaniards from the landing. *The Landing at Baiquiri* The "New Orleans" and some of the other vessels of the fleet shelled the hills around Baiquiri to rout any Spanish troops that might be in ambush there, and the land-

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ing began. Soon the sea was alive with flotillas of small boats, headed by launches, speeding for the dock at Baiquiri. Each of the small boats carried sixteen men, every one in fighting trim, and carrying three days' rations, a shelter tent, a gun, and two hundred cartridges. The Eighth Regular Infantry was the first regiment to land. It was followed by the First, Twenty-fifth, Twenty-second, Fifteenth, Seventeenth, and Twelfth Regulars, the Second Massachusetts Volunteers, and a part of the cavalry.

A strong detachment under Brigadier-General Lawton was thrown out about four miles to the westward, toward Santiago. Another detachment was posted to the north of the town, and the rest of the troops that had landed were quartered in the iron company's buildings, and the deserted dwellings of Baiquiri. General Lawton rested Wednesday night at Comajayahó, four miles west of Baiquiri, resuming his march at daybreak. Before noon his brigade, consisting of the Twenty-second Infantry, the First Infantry, the Second Massachusetts, with several companies from the Eighth, Fourth, and Twenty-fifth Cavalry, had occupied Juragua and had hoisted the American flag there.



LANDING PLACE AT BAIQUIRI.
By permission of the New York Herald.

Battle of Las Guasimas

The Spaniards had fallen back as Lawton advanced, and the Americans had burned several unoccupied blockhouses. Before General Linares' troops left Juragua, they had made efforts to destroy the locomotives and rolling stock of the railroad there. A detachment of Cubans under Colonel Aguirra had had a brush with the Spanish rear-guard, having had two men killed and seven wounded. General Chaffee, with the Fourth, Seventh, Twelfth, and Seventeenth Infantry, and companies of the Fourth, Eighth, and Ninth Cavalry, reached Juragua at dusk on Thursday. General Young, with part of the regular cavalry, and the First Volunteer Cavalry, under Colonel Wood, the "Rough Riders," was also hurrying forward to support General Lawton.

The first skirmish took place on Friday morning near Las Guasimas, when the Spaniards attacked the troops advancing to support General Lawton, and were repulsed after an hour's fighting. The Americans had been advancing in two divisions, General Young directing the movement of the regulars, and Colonel Wood the "Roosevelt Rough Riders," so called because the lieutenant-colonel was Theodore Roosevelt,

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who had resigned as Assistant Secretary of the Navy to organize a regiment of college men and cowboys.

In the skirmish Captain Capron, Lieutenant Hamilton Fish, and several privates among the "Rough Riders" were killed. Six privates of the First Regular Cavalry and one of the Tenth were also left dead on the field. No less than fifty Americans were wounded, among them six officers. Major Brodie, of the "Rough Riders," was shot through the right arm; Captain McClintock, of the "Rough Riders," fell with a bullet through his leg, and Lieutenant Thomas was also crippled by a small wound. Of the regulars, the officers wounded by Spanish bullets were Major Bell, Captain Knox, and Lieutenant Bryan.

General Lawton had established his headquarters for Thursday night slightly beyond the village of Altares. General Wheeler had camped two miles or more in the rear. To the front were the Cuban outposts. Not a single Spaniard could be seen, although hundreds of field-glasses had scrutinized the thickets on all sides. Early on Friday morning the First Volunteer Cavalry, the "Rough Riders," commanded by Colonel Wood, began

Battle of Las Guasimas

their advance towards Santiago. It was seven o'clock when they entered the village of Altares. After a short halt, they began a long climb up the steep, narrow trail, which affords the only passage to the Grand Mesa, which shuts the city of Santiago from the sea. Laden with full marching equipment, they toiled slowly up the rocky path in single file. The Tenth Cavalry had landed and was climbing up to the village of Altares. The Seventy-first New York Volunteers had just come off a transport, and were lining up to commence the same ascent.

As the "Rough Riders" advanced, there was still no sign of the enemy. Men began
"Rough Riders" to fall out of the ranks and drop
attacked exhausted from the intense heat. The line of their advance was marked with blankets and other articles. Suddenly, over a hillside, two or three miles across a valley, which paralleled the trail, a puff of smoke arose, and then another and another. The crack of Mausers was heard. The "Rough Riders" knew that Castillo's Cubans were engaging the Spaniards, and as the firing became heavier, that General Lawton's men were taking a hand. While the "Rough Riders" were

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watching this fight from a distance, there came a flash from the thicket scarcely two hundred yards ahead, and a score of Mauser bullets went shrieking over the heads of the volunteer cavalrymen, now for the first time under fire.

"It's up to us, boys," cried Lieutenant-Colonel Roosevelt, who was near the head of the column. The trail along which the "Rough Riders" were advancing was so narrow they could move only in single file. "Deploy; lie down," commanded Colonel Wood. Troop L, which was in the advance, scattered, sending a volley in the direction whence the Spanish bullets came. Their fire did not, however, check the Spaniards, who advanced bravely, but firing so rapidly that their aim was generally too high.

One or two of the "Rough Riders" showed signs of panic, but the cool demeanor of Colonel Wood and Lieutenant-Colonel *Spaniards driven back* Roosevelt encouraged them, and they settled down to work. Troop G reinforced Troop L, but still the enemy pressed forward. Colonel Wood's men yielded ground slowly, and the sound of the firing told those in the rear a battle was on, and a general rush for the front began. Reinforcements found Troops

Battle of Las Guasimas

L and G fighting in an awkward position, with a wire trocha on one side and a ravine on the other. The enemy was temporarily checked, but presently outflanked the "Rough Riders," who were forced to fall back, fighting fiercely as they retired.

Colonel Wood despatched an orderly for reinforcements, who met the Tenth Cavalry and the Twenty-second Infantry. Both of these regiments hurried forward. Men who had been lying on the ground exhausted by the heat grasped rifles and rushed to the fray. With these reinforcements the Spanish were quickly put to flight and were hotly pursued by the Americans for a mile and a half, a force of two thousand of the enemy being routed by one thousand of the Americans.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

THE ADVANCE ON SANTIAGO

SATURDAY evening, June 25, found the American troops all safely disembarked with practically no accidents, and pushing on toward Santiago. General Shafter himself was at Siboney, and an emergency corps was sent on ahead of him to build a military road. The men were complaining bitterly of the clothing provided by the government, which was entirely unsuited to the climate. So hastily had the expedition been fitted out that most of the men still had the heavy uniforms they wore in the North. The advance was marked by a trail of clothing and blankets cast aside. Two thousand Cubans had been landed at Baiquiri and had joined General Shafter's forces. General Linares, commanding the Spanish troops, had been driven back beyond the village of Sevilla.

Shafter, on hearing of the engagements of Friday, had hurried forward to Siboney, where he had a conference with General Garcia, com-

The Advance on Santiago

manding the Cubans. They perfected plans for a junction of four thousand Cubans with *Plans of* General Wheeler's troops, with a *Attack* view to making an immediate attack on the city.

It was believed at this time in Washington that General Pando was nearing Santiago with reinforcements from Havana, and the Washington authorities, on receipt of the news of battling, began to make hasty preparations for sending reinforcements to General Shafter, and some troops did sail from Newport News on the "Harvard." As a matter of fact, although the Spaniards in the city were reinforced, it was not by General Pando, as he had been sent to Mexico and Central America to stir up sympathy and collect money for Spain, but by General Escario.

For several days there was no pitched battle, but only occasional skirmishes between the outposts. The Americans were busily engaged in moving forward artillery and in moving troops to the north and west to invest Santiago. On the morning of Friday, July 1, General Shafter's troops began a vigorous attack on the outer defences of Santiago. The Americans advanced on the city from three directions.

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While General Lawton and General Kent were attacking Caney, to the northeast of the city of Santiago, General Bates was *Battle of July 1* advancing on Aguadores, to the southeast of the city. General Garcia, with his Cuban troops, at the same time approached Caney from the southeast. Other divisions of the Americans pressed on toward Santiago from the east, attacking the Spaniards in the village of San Juan. The fighting line of the Americans thus practically presented a solid front from the coast to General Linares' northern defences. Both the American and Spanish fleets joined in the battle. Some of Admiral Sampson's ships shelled the batteries of Aguadores as the men under General Bates attacked from the land side. The cruisers of Admiral Cervera, lying in the harbor, shelled the American lines.

The first to fall in this battle were four men of the Twenty-first Regiment of regulars as they advanced from Sevilla to Caney. Sixteen other members of the regiment were wounded. Two companies of the Roosevelt Rough Riders and the Third, Sixth, and Twenty-first Infantry had attacked the northeastern defences far ahead of the general advance. Two batteries

The Advance on Santiago

of light artillery pushed forward to the northeast of Santiago and began the fighting there by attacking the Spaniards at Caney, from which there was a road running directly to Santiago, and hence a valuable strategic position.

General Joseph Wheeler, with part of the cavalry, unmounted, and General Garcia, with *Capture of* the Cubans, pushed forward to join *Caney* in the attack on Caney. The Spanish fought desperately to prevent Caney from falling into the hands of the Americans, but it was a vain effort. Before the fighting had been long under way the Americans and Cubans had gained advanced ground, and then foot by foot the Spaniards were driven back into the village and finally routed there.

There was desperate fighting about Aguadores, upon which General Kent's troops advanced. Acting under orders from General Linares, the Spaniards made a most desperate resistance, but the Americans kept gaining ground and held what they had gained.

When the fighting of the day ended, General H. W. Lawton was at Caney with three brigades. The First, under Colonel Van Horn commanding the Eighth and Twenty-second Infantry, and the Second Massachusetts; the

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Second Brigade, composed of the First, Fourth, and Twenty-fifth Infantry ; the Third Brigade, under General Chaffee, composed of the Twelfth, Seventh, and Seventeenth Infantry. General Joseph Wheeler, with four light batteries, was in the rear of General Lawton's command, with General Young. Here, too, was a cavalry force, unmounted, made up of troops from the First, Third, Sixth, Ninth, and Tenth regiments.

Moving toward Aguadores from Sevilla was the First Brigade, under General Hawkins, with the Sixteenth and Sixth Infantry, the Seventy-first New York ; the Second Brigade, Colonel Pierson commanding, consisting of the Second, Tenth, and Twenty-first Infantry ; and the Third Brigade, Colonel Worth commanding, made up of the Ninth, Thirteenth, and Twenty-fourth Infantry. General Bates had the Thirty-third and a part of the Thirty-fourth Michigan Volunteers.

General Shafter, when evening came, reported to President McKinley that after fighting all day his lines were within three-fourths of a mile of the city.

In this battle General Linares, the commander of the Spanish troops at Santiago, was

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so badly wounded that he had to relinquish his command to General Toral. General Vara *Linares* del Rey was killed. General *Linares wounded* had thrown himself into the forefront of battle from the minute that the American forces had effected a landing in Cuba. He was at the head of his men in several skirmishes that took place while the Americans were forcing their way foot by foot from Jurgua to Sevilla. He had his headquarters in Sevilla when General Shafter's troops made an assault against that place, and he was one of the last to retire when the Spaniards were driven back toward Santiago.

From the moment of the American attack on the outer defences of Santiago on the morning of July 1, General Linares was much in evidence. He went to the front to take personal command. Mounted on a spirited horse, he rode up and down the lines before his troops, directing their defence of the city's intrenchments and freely exposing himself to the American fire. While he was thus inspiring his men to bravery by his own actions, he was struck by a bullet and fell from his horse. He was instantly surrounded by members of his staff and carried to a place of safety in the city.

CHAPTER XXXIX

CANEY AND SAN JUAN HILL

THE combined assault of the various divisions of General Shafter's army upon Santiago on Friday, July 1, was carefully planned out at a meeting of the generals in the tent of General Shafter on the evening before. The fierce fights that followed, ending in the taking of Caney and San Juan, were the natural outcome. It was decided at this meeting that the light battery commanded by Captain Capron, the father of the young captain of "Rough Riders" who fell at Las Guasimas, should early in the morning begin the attack on Caney. General Lawton's troops were to support him there, and after Caney had been taken to move along the Caney road toward Santiago.

General Wheeler's mounted cavalry and the infantry under General Kent were directed to take a position in the Santiago road, the head of the column resting near the heights of El Pozo, where Captain Grimes' battery was posted to prepare for the advance of General

Caney and San Juan Hill

Wheeler and General Kent on San Juan Hill. The attack at this point was to be delayed until General Lawton's guns at Caney showed that the Spaniards were well engaged at that point. The position of the Spaniards was a strong one. The troops were located in block-houses, a stone fort, and a strongly built stone church, and in well-protected trenches in the vicinity of these buildings.

Captain Capron opened the attack with his battery shortly before seven o'clock, and sharp fighting continued from that time on until late in the afternoon, when the place was taken. The Twenty-second Infantry advanced toward Caney from a position about two miles south, over rough ground, and here and there a wire fence. The officers expected to find only about five hundred men in the village. All the way they were under fire from Spanish sharpshooters,—a fire that it was impossible to return on account of the impossibility of locating it. The greater part of it came from guerillas concealed in treetops. Under this fire many of the officers and men fell.

Nine o'clock in the morning found the Twenty-second within about five hundred yards of the village. The Americans could plainly

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see the large stone blockhouse, with the Spanish flag flying on it, and several other fortified buildings. From these fortifications came a deadly fire, unobstructed except by a few bushes. The men were exhausted from their march in the Cuban sun, made on short rations, for there had been great difficulty in getting the stores forward in sufficient quantity for the troops in the advance. Nevertheless they fought bravely. Most of the morning was spent in manœuvring for a better position. Noon found the Twenty-second well located and sending hot shot into the Spanish lines. The Americans had only one hundred rounds for each man, and their officers, well out on the firing lines, watching the Spanish lines with field-glasses, saw to it that none of the shots was wasted. There was a long red building in which four hundred of the Spaniards were intrenched. A wounded prisoner stated after the battle that when the fighting ended there were only two men in the building who had escaped being struck by the American bullets.

While the Twenty-second was thus engaged, Captain Capron's battery was pounding the blockhouse, and two regiments under General Bates and the rest of the troops under General

Caney and San Juan Hill

Lawton were attacking the Spaniards from other quarters. The Spaniards about half-past four gave up the fight and retreated to Santiago, fighting as they retreated. The Americans, yelling, "On to Santiago!" entered the village and pressed on hard after the Spaniards until evening. A large number of the Spaniards were killed and many more wounded in this fight, and several hundred of them were taken prisoners. Six of the American officers were killed and wounded, and the ranks of the men were decimated.

The attack on San Juan Hill was not to take place until the Spanish troops at Caney were well engaged. In this respect the *Fight at San Juan Hill* plans miscarried a little. So vigorous was the firing at Caney that Grimes' battery, posted on the heights of El Pozo, and the troops supporting it believed the Americans were driving the Spaniards before them. Grimes' battery accordingly opened on the blockhouse on San Juan Hill with a very effective fire, and Spanish troops were seen running away from the blockhouse. The artillery posted at San Juan vigorously replied to the American fire. The Spaniards, using smokeless powder, had greatly the advantage, as great

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clouds of black smoke clearly marked the American position.

The cavalry division under General Sumner, which had been lying concealed near El Pozo, was ordered forward to cross the San Juan River, hardly more than a brook, and deploy to the right, to the Santiago side of San Juan, while the troops under General Kent deployed to the left of the Spanish position.

General Wheeler had been ill, but rising from a sick bed he moved the dismounted cavalry across the San Juan River and threw them to the right, with a view to uniting them with the troops under General Lawton. General Kent's men, moving along the left branch of the road and crossing the stream, formed for the attack on San Juan Hill.

As the Second Brigade was forming for the attack, its gallant commander, Colonel Wikoff, *Losses of Officers* of the Twenty-second United States Infantry, was killed. Lieutenant-Colonel Worth succeeded to the command of the brigade, only to retire soon, seriously wounded. The command then devolved on Lieutenant-Colonel Liscum, of the Twenty-fourth Infantry. Five minutes later he fell under the Spanish fire, and Lieutenant-Colonel



GRIME'S BATTERY IN ACTION.
By permission of the New York Herald.

Caney and San Juan Hill

Ewers, of the Ninth Infantry, was left in command.

General Kent meanwhile was hurrying forward the rear brigade of his command. The Tenth and Second Infantry were ordered to follow Colonel Wikoff's brigade, while the Twenty-first was sent on the right-hand division of the road to support the First Brigade under General Hawkins, who had crossed the stream and formed in the right of the division. The Second and Tenth Infantry, under Colonel Pierson, formed in good order to the left of the division, and passing over a green knoll, drove the Spaniards back to their trenches. Of the attack that followed when the troops had been thus disposed, Major-General Shafter said : —

“ In this fierce encounter words fail to do justice to the gallant regimental commanders and their heroic men, for while the generals indicated the formations and the points of attack, it was, after all, the intrepid bravery of the subordinate officers and men that planted our colors on the crest of San Juan Hill and drove the enemy from the trenches and blockhouse, thus gaining the position which sealed the fate of Santiago.”

CHAPTER XL

RESULTS OF THE BATTLE

THE fighting done by the Americans at Caney and San Juan Hill on July 1 won them great praise for bravery. On short rations, fighting in heavy uniforms, in intense heat, opposing a foe well intrenched, they won signal victories, though at terrible loss. The total losses in the fighting at Santiago, the great majority of which were on the first day's fighting, were : twenty-two officers and two hundred and eight privates killed ; eighty-one officers and one thousand two hundred and three privates wounded ; seventy-nine privates missing, most of whom were located later.

Among the officers who were killed in this battle was Colonel Charles A. Wikoff, of the *Officers Killed* Twenty-second United States Infantry, for whom Camp Wikoff, at Montauk, L. I., was named shortly afterward. Lieutenant-Colonel John M. Hamilton, of the Ninth United States Cavalry ; Major Forse, of the First Cavalry ; Captain W. P. Morrison,

Results of the Battle

of the Sixteenth United States Infantry ; Captain William O'Neill, of the First Volunteer Cavalry, the " Rough Riders," and Lieutenants Michie, Ord, Smith, Augustin, and Shipp.

In the list of the wounded were included the following officers,—Brigadier-General Hawkins, Lieutenant-Colonel Worth, of the Thirteenth United States Infantry ; Lieutenant-Colonel Liscum, Twenty-fourth United States Infantry : Lieutenant-Colonel Carroll, commanding First Brigade, Cavalry Division ; Major Ellis, Thirteenth United States Infantry ; Major Henry W. Wessells, Third United States Cavalry ; Captain Blocksome, Captain Kerr, and Lieutenant Short, of the Sixth United States Cavalry ; Captain Hunter, Captain Dodd, Lieutenant Meyer, and Lieutenant Hayes, Third United States Cavalry ; Captain Taylor and Lieutenant Wood, Ninth United States Cavalry ; Lieutenant McCoy, Tenth United States Cavalry ; Lieutenant Mills, First United States Cavalry ; and Captain Rodman, First United States Infantry.

In this fight members of several of the volunteer infantry regiments distinguished themselves. The Thirty-third and the *Volunteers'* Thirty-fourth Michigan regiments
Bravery

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and the Seventy-first New York were in the thick of the fight. The Seventy-first formed the centre of an attacking column in which were the Sixth and Sixteenth Regulars. They were subjected to a galling artillery fire from both right and left. After the attacking column had driven the enemy from point to point, they suddenly found themselves caught in a triangle. Hemmed in by the enemy, they had to face a terrific infantry fire. They were mowed down by the hundreds, the Spanish by the use of smokeless powder being able to continue their destructive work most effectively.

At one time matters took a desperate turn for the Americans. They had long withstood the fire of the hidden infantry and pluckily retained their self-possession while their comrades were falling on every side. Inspired by their leaders, they hammered away at the underbrush in which the enemy seemed to be lurking until late in the afternoon. Just as the fighting was becoming critical, they were reinforced by the troops under General Lawton and General Chaffee. All the Americans then threw themselves forward, charging the enemy with such fury that they swept all before them. The Spaniards fled from their defences, and

Results of the Battle

San Juan Hill was soon in the possession of the Americans.

The infantry regiments that suffered the heaviest losses in this day's fighting were the Thirteenth and Twenty-fourth Regulars. It was a detachment of seventy-five men from the latter regiment, under Captain Ducat and Lieutenant Lyon, that captured the blockhouse on San Juan Hill in the final charge. Of the seventy-five men who started up the hill in the face of a destructive Spanish fire, fifty-three were killed, and of the survivors several were severely wounded.

The blockhouse stood at the top of a hill facing the pathway leading up to it and into the *Heroic* town. It was placed there purposely *Charges* to guard the approach to the city, and to advance meant that the American soldiers must pass it, garrisoned as it was with sixty well-armed soldiers. Captain Ducat's company, firing as they ran, rushed up the hill in a storm of bullets. Neither Captain Ducat nor Lieutenant Lyon reached the blockhouse, both falling wounded on the slope; but their fall did not stop the onward rush of their men by a moment. The Spanish, dismayed by the daring of the Americans, retreated from the

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blockhouse, leaving it to Captain Ducat's men, and thus opening up the way for the carrying of the position by assault.

Similar bravery was displayed by nineteen members of the Ninth Infantry in taking a blockhouse at El Caney on the same afternoon. Ordered to the roof of the blockhouse, which because of its heavy timbers their bullets had been unable to penetrate, four of the men dropped down inside the blockhouse, where were thirty-five desperate Spaniards. The four paid for their daring with the instant loss of their lives, and, infuriated at the sight, the fifteen survivors plunged all at once among the Spaniards and engaged in a furious fight for twenty minutes, which resulted in those Spaniards who could hastily retreating.

The night of July 1 found the Americans holding both San Juan and Caney and well *after* advanced toward the trenches of *disheart-* Santiago at other points. During *ened* that night and all the next day the Spaniards made sorties in attempts to recapture the positions they had lost, but about July 3 the fighting was suspended. This practically ended the battle of Santiago, for, though there was some skirmishing later,

Results of the Battle

what followed may more properly be termed a siege.

General Shafter was, however, much disheartened. He was ill and suffering greatly from the intense heat. He had learned that the garrison of Santiago had been reinforced by 5000 troops which had evaded a force of Cubans under General Garcia, especially detailed to prevent their entrance. Appalled by the heavy losses in his own army, he decided that his position was untenable and contemplated ordering a retreat, and so intimated in his despatches to the War Department in Washington.

Instant preparations were made there to send him reinforcements, and Major-General Miles, who had been striving in vain to get permission from Secretary of War Alger to go to the front, was now directed to proceed to Santiago. The division and brigade commanders under General Shafter took by no means the gloomy view of the situation that he did, and they counselled so strongly against retreat that General Shafter delayed his contemplated order. He had been complaining to the Washington authorities that the co-operation of the fleet was not as great as it should be;

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and he and Admiral Sampson received orders to confer with a view to a better understanding. While Admiral Sampson was on his way to confer with General Shafter, an unexpected move on the part of the Spaniards entirely changed the outlook.

CHAPTER XLI

CERVERA'S FLEET DESTROYED

THE Spanish fleet, under Admiral Cervera, consisting of the cruisers "Cristobal Colon," "Infanta Maria Teresa," "Vizcaya," and "Almirante Oquendo," and the torpedo boat destroyers "Pluton" and "Furor" were destroyed by the American fleet under Admiral Sampson at Santiago de Cuba on Sunday morning, July 3.

This fatal dash from the harbor of Santiago was not the wish of Admiral Cervera. It was *Cervera a Prisoner* made by the order of General Blanco at Havana, who had been urged to take this step by the authorities in Madrid, who considered some show of resistance necessary to convince the turbulent Spanish populace that Spanish honor was being satisfied. It was in vain that Admiral Cervera protested that to emerge from the harbor when a superior squadron lay in wait for him meant certain defeat.

On the morning of July 3 the Spanish fleet steamed boldly out of the harbor, with the

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“Infanta Maria Teresa” in the lead. In less than half an hour two of Cervera’s ships were wrecks, a few minutes later a third ran up a white flag, the two destroyers were sinking hulks, and the “Cristobal Colon” was being hotly pursued along the coast, where, some miles from the harbor mouth, she was grounded to prevent her sinking. In the engagement the Americans lost only one man, while practically all the Spanish officers and most of their crews were either killed or taken prisoners. One of the captains committed suicide. Admiral Cervera was taken prisoner. Admiral Villamil, in command of the torpedo boat destroyers, lost his life.

Admiral Sampson missed the engagement, having shortly before the Spaniards emerged moved down the coast toward Aguadores, and being unable after the firing was heard to reach the scene in time to participate, beyond firing a couple of small shots. The command of the fleet during the action thus fell to Commodore Schley, on the cruiser “Brooklyn.” It was to him, even though the fleet was under the command of Admiral Sampson, that the popular mind gave the greatest credit for the victory.

Cervera's Fleet Destroyed

In the quiet of the Sunday morning the American men-of-war lay off the harbor entrance of Santiago at distances ranging from four thousand to six thousand yards. It was about half-past nine o'clock, and Lieutenant Duzer, the officer of the watch on the battle-ship "Iowa," was relieving the navigating officer, Lieutenant Schuetze, officer of the deck, when he heard a quick cry to call the captain, followed by the shout: "There come the Spaniards out of the harbor!"

The trained eye of the alert officer marked the thin trail of drifting smoke, and before the signal "Clear ships for action!" had been given, the bows of the Spanish cruisers, rushing in "line ahead" were seen darting around Socapa Point for the open sea.

Men rushed to quarters, guns were trained, and in less than thirty seconds the whistling shriek of a rapid-fire gun warned the startled fleet of the hot work awaiting it. In two minutes every gun on the "Iowa" was cast loose, manned, loaded, and ready for the long-expected signal to fire. At the yard arm of the "Iowa" a string of signal flags warned the fleet that the enemy was trying to escape; but even before the answering pennants of the other ships

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announced that the message was understood, every vessel was dashing to the stations long before allotted to them for the emergency that had come at last.

Almost simultaneously with the "Iowa" the commodore's flagship, the "Brooklyn," had sighted the Spanish fleet. "*The Battle quickly begun* vera's trying to escape!" was the cry that arose on the "Brooklyn" and was re-echoed through the fleet. As the "Brooklyn" set her signals, every American vessel began a rush inshore, the men taking their places by the guns, the engines crowding on all steam, one and all aboard the war-ships making ready for the great battle.

Just as the "Infanta Maria Teresa" was poking her nose out into the open sea, Commodore Schley started the "Brooklyn" rushing to head her off. The battle-ships "Massachusetts" and "Oregon" followed the "Brooklyn," while the battle-ships "Indiana," "Iowa," and "Texas," with the little "Gloucester," the converted yacht "Corsair," formerly owned by Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, of New York, were left to look after the other vessels of the Spanish fleet.

The Spaniards, with bottled steam, cleared

Cervera's Fleet Destroyed

the harbor's mouth seemingly in a moment. Their course was shaped for the westward, but, fast as they sped in their desperate break for freedom, faster flew the shells of the pursuing Americans. Not one whit behind in this awful fusillade roared the batteries of the Spaniards. Their port broadsides flamed and grumbled. In fifteen minutes after they were discovered the four Spanish armored cruisers had cleared the entrance, and five minutes later the torpedo boat destroyers were in the turmoil of the action. The air trembled and blazed with the most terrific battle of modern naval history.

In an instant, it seemed, one of the cruisers burst into flames, caused by a long sure shot either from the "Oregon" or "Texas." A minute later a twelve-inch projectile sent from the "Iowa's" forward turret struck the "Infanta Maria Teresa" near her after smokepipe. A tremendous explosion followed, and the cruiser was first shrouded in blinding smoke and then lighted by lurid flames. When the powder cloud from the explosion blew down, she was seen, helm hard a-port, rushing for the beach.

As the American war-ships rushed on toward their prey, shell after shell struck the hulls of the Spaniards' armored cruisers, just as if it were

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target practice on a summer morning, and not the annihilation of the naval strength of Spain. In twenty-five minutes two of the Spanish cruisers were wrecked, and in three-quarters of an hour the third surrendered. Only the "Cristobal Colon" was still seeking to escape.

Meanwhile the "Furor" and "Pluton," the much-vaunted torpedo boat destroyers, had dashed out in the wake of the cruisers. *Wainwright's Revenge* The "Indiana" and the "Iowa" let fly at them as they hurried on after the larger vessels. A twelve-inch shell struck one of the destroyers. The little "Hist" engaged them, and then the "Gloucester" joined in the fray. The "Gloucester's" commander was Lieutenant-Commander Richard Wainwright, who had been executive officer of the "Maine" when she was blown up in Havana harbor.

Eagerly had Wainwright waited for an opportunity to avenge the destruction of the "Maine," and well he made use of it. The awful storm of rapid-fire projectiles from the "Gloucester" soon vanquished the "Furor" and "Pluton," and they ran for the shore to drift as riddled wrecks upon the rocks. And not only thus did the gallant Wainwright avenge the



THE OREGON AFTER THE BATTLE.

By permission of the New York Herald.

Cervera's Fleet Destroyed

"Maine," but at every one of the Spanish fleet before engaging the destroyers the "Gloucester" sent hot shot.

The "Iowa," hurrying in to join the "Oregon" and "Brooklyn" in the chase for the *Surrender of the* "Cristobal Colon," came up with the once proud cruiser "Vizcaya." As "*Vizcaya*" the "Iowa" approached, the "Vizcaya," with a quick turn to starboard, ran shoreward, and it was seen that she was aflame fore and aft. As the "Iowa" was about to give her a finishing broadside, a white flag went up on the "Vizcaya," and amid the cheers of the Americans the boats of the "Iowa" and "Hist" were lowered to save the Spanish crew.

The "Iowa's" boats picked up about two hundred and fifty of the "Vizcaya's" crew, and the "Hist's" a hundred more. Some of the crew swam to the beach, but, finding the shores patrolled by alert parties of Cuban soldiers, hastened to plunge into the waves again, preferring to trust themselves to the American seamen, rather than to the merciless Cubans. On board the "Iowa" the Spaniards were courteously treated, and the paymaster's stores were liberally drawn upon to supply them with dry clothing as well as food.

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The commander of the "Vizcaya" was the courteous Captain Eulate, who only a few weeks before had been received in New York as a guest of honor. As he was lifted over the side of the "Iowa" and half carried aft, he presented his sword to the "Iowa's" commander, Captain Robley D. Evans. Captain Evans declined to receive the sword of the man he had beaten in battle, and, waving it back with a friendly gesture, grasped the hand of Captain Eulate, and welcomed him to the hospitality of the ship.

CHAPTER XLII

THE CHASE OF THE "COLON"

PERHAPS the most dramatic incident of the naval battle at Santiago on July 3, was the chase of the "Cristobal Colon," that ended in her being beached, a helpless wreck, on the shore, about fifty miles from Santiago. In this pursuit, the American war-ship that distinguished herself most was the battle-ship "Oregon," commanded by Captain Clark. The "Oregon" had already distinguished herself by the run she had made from San Francisco to Key West. The perilous voyage around South America had been made in record-breaking time, and the battle-ship had reached Key West without being in need of the slightest repairs.

Upon emerging from the harbor of Santiago the "Cristobal Colon," reserving her fire, had forged ahead at her maximum speed to the westward. The "Brooklyn," at the beginning of the battle, engaged the "Colon," and received a few shots in reply, but the "Colon" darted

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onward, reserving her heaviest fire until later, when the "Vizcaya" and "Colon" fiercely engaged in a running fight with the "Brooklyn," "Texas," "Iowa," and "Oregon," which resulted in the "Vizcaya" being run aground at Asseraderos. After her consort had been vanquished, the "Cristobal Colon" dashed on to the westward, running close in shore, evidently with the object of finding a good place to beach if she should fail to elude her pursuers.

The "Oregon" led the chase, while the "Brooklyn" and "Texas," and later the flag-ship "New York," which, as soon as *Chase of Fifty Miles* the battle began, hastened to rejoin the fleet, pushed on after the "Oregon." The pursuit continued with increasing speed, and soon the "Brooklyn" and "Oregon" were again within long range of the "Colon." The "Oregon" opened fire with her thirteen-inch guns, landing a shell near the "Colon." The "Brooklyn" followed with her eight-inch guns. As battle-ship and cruiser gained better range, the "Colon" became the better target, and her commander gave up all hope of escape.

Seeing destruction awaiting his ship if he continued the fight, the captain of the "Colon" struck the flag at a quarter past one o'clock, —

The Chase of the “Colon”

about four hours after the battle began, — and then beached her at a point about fifty miles west of Santiago harbor. Captain Cook, of the “Brooklyn,” then went aboard the “Colon” and received her surrender.

As a result of this battle of Santiago the Spanish admiral was captured and more than thirteen hundred of his men taken prisoners, many among them severely wounded. Admiral Cervera estimated that at least six hundred were killed. The American loss was one man killed and one man wounded. The man killed was G. H. Ellis, chief yeoman of the “Brooklyn.”¹

¹ Three days after the destruction of Admiral Cervera’s fleet, President McKinley issued this thanksgiving proclamation :

“At this time, when to the yet fresh remembrance of the unprecedented success which attended the operations of the United States fleet in the Bay of Manila on the first day of May last, are added the tidings of no less glorious achievements of the naval and military arms of our beloved country at Santiago de Cuba, it is fitting that we should pause, and, staying the feeling of exultation that too naturally attends great deeds wrought by our countrymen in our country’s cause, should reverently bow before the throne of divine grace and give devout praise to God, who holdeth the nations in the hollow of His hands, and worketh on them the marvels of his high will and who has thus far vouchsafed to us the light of his face and led our brave soldiers and seamen to victory.

“I therefore ask the people of the United States, upon the

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Admiral Cervera, clad only in his underclothes, was rescued from his flagship. Admiral Villamil, commanding the torpedo boat flotilla, was killed during the action. The captain of the "Almirante Oquendo," Don Juan Lasaga, shot himself when he saw his ship was doomed. Captain Eulate and another commander were wounded.

next assembling for divine worship in their respective places of meeting, to offer thanksgiving to Almighty God, who in his inscrutable ways, now leading our boats upon the water to unscathed triumph, now guiding them in a strange land through the dread shadows of death to success, even though at a fearful cost, now bearing them without accident or loss to far-distant climes, has watched over us and brought nearer the success of the right and the attainment of just and honorable peace.

"With the nation's thanks let there be mingled the nation's prayers that our gallant sons may be shielded from harm alike on the battlefield and in the clash of fleets, and be spared the scourge of suffering and disease while they are striving to uphold their country's honor, and withal let the nation's heart be stilled with holy awe at the thought of the noble men who have perished as heroes die, and be filled with compassionate sympathy for all those who suffer bereavement or endure sickness, wounds, or bonds by reason of the awful struggle.

"And, above all, let us pray with earnest fervor that He, the dispenser of all good, may speedily remove from us the untold afflictions of war and bring to our dear land the blessings of restored peace, and to all the domain now ravaged by the cruel strife the priceless boon of security and tranquillity.

"WILLIAM MCKINLEY.

"EXECUTIVE MANSION, WASHINGTON, July 6, 1898."

The Chase of the “Colon”

“We have lost all save honor,” said Admiral Cervera, in a report he was permitted to send to General Blanco the day after the battle. In this report he spoke highly of the bravery his men had manifested. Despite Admiral Cervera’s tribute to the courage of his men, it was stated as a fact that many of the Spaniards had practically to be driven to quarters before the battle, and that while the fight was on the captains resorted to the expedient of opening up their cases of wine and brandy to keep up the courage of the men by stimulants. As the vessels neared their destruction, in several instances there were riotous scenes, the crew seizing the ships’ liquors and gold and seeking to carry it away.

Despairing as was Admiral Cervera’s report, it did not prevent Captain-General Blanco, with the usual Spanish optimism, that frequently distorted facts for home consumption, from issuing an address to the people of Cuba in which he said:—

“Courage is not always accompanied by fortune. The fleet commanded by Admiral Cervera has just accomplished an act of heroism which was perhaps the greatest ever recorded in the history of the navies in the present century. Fighting against an American

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force three times its superior, it gloriously succumbed at the very moment when we considered it safe from the danger which was threatening it at Santiago de Cuba. The blow is rude, but it would be unbecoming for Spanish hearts to be dismayed by this misfortune, no matter how grave it appears. We must show to the world that our hearts are not overcome by adverse events, and that we have courage to view adversity serenely and to struggle against it until we conquer."

Spanish prisoners taken at the naval battle of Santiago were for the most part taken to *Spanish* Portsmouth, N. H., where they were *Prisoners* camped with a guard of marines. Quarters for the captured officers were found at the Naval Academy in Annapolis, although the officers frequently went elsewhere on parole. Until they were sent home, after the signing of the peace protocol, they were treated with kindness and courtesy, in a spirit best illustrated, perhaps, by the words of Captain Philip, of the battle-ship "Texas," to his crew, as they began to cheer when they saw the Spanish cruisers wrecked:—

"Don't cheer, boys; the poor devils are dying."

CHAPTER XLIII

SURRENDER OF SANTIAGO

SANTIAGO was surrendered by General Toral to the American troops under Major-General William R. Shafter, at noon on Sunday, July 17, 1898, according to an agreement drawn up and signed the day before.

The first demand for the surrender of the city had been made on the morning of July 3, after two days of hard fighting, during which the Americans had captured the outer defences of the city at San Juan and El Caney. General Toral, who commanded the Spanish troops after General Linares was wounded, had refused the demand. Foreign consuls in Santiago then demanded that the American fleet and army delay the bombardment of the city threatened until foreign residents of Santiago had been removed to places of safety, in and beyond the American lines. A truce was allowed for this, which continued until July 9, when General

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Shafter renewed his demand for surrender, again threatening to bombard.

General Toral's reply was that he was not authorized to capitulate, but would have to communicate with Captain-General Blanco at Havana. While he was doing this, General Shafter asked the Washington authorities whether any other proposition would be accepted other than unconditional surrender. He was informed that no other proposition could be listened to, but that in such an event the surrendered Spanish troops would be permitted to return to Spain.

General Toral's reply, again, was that he could not surrender, and on July 11 the army and fleet opened fire on the city again. Some little damage was done by the heavy shots of the war-ships. The Spaniards, however, kept well within the trenches, and the only casualties were three Americans wounded. On Tuesday, July 12, the feeble replies to the American fire led General Shafter to suspect that the Spanish were trying to leave the city, and he renewed his demand for General Toral's surrender, only to have it once more denied.

While the Americans had the city well invested, there were certain features that made

Surrender of Santiago

too long a delay in the capture of the city dangerous for them. The much-dreaded yellow fever had appeared in General Shafter's army. Fugitives of foreign birth, who had fled from Santiago practically without food, were looking to the Americans to supply them ; while the fact was that the soldiers, owing to the incapacity or the unusual demands on the Commissary Department, did not always have enough to eat themselves.

Officials of the administration, alarmed at the outbreak of yellow fever, kept urging Shafter to force immediate action. General Miles, who had arrived at Guantanamo, also urged the same thing. As a result of General Miles' urging, a meeting was held between the lines, at which General Toral met General Shafter and General Wheeler, and discussed the question of capitulation. Washington authorities were highly gratified the next day at receiving a despatch from General Shafter which said : —

“ Have just returned from interview with General Toral. He agrees to surrender on the basis of being returned to Spain. This proposition embraces all of eastern Cuba, from Asseraderos on the south to Sagua

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on the north, *via* Palma, with practically the Fourth Army Corps. Commissioners meet this afternoon at half-past two to definitely arrange the terms."

It soon became evident that General Shafter had been a little too hasty, for when the commissioners met, the Spaniards insisted that they be allowed to retain their arms, and this resulted in the final surrender of the city being delayed until Sunday, July 17. Meanwhile General Miles, under the belief that the surrender was made, had started for Porto Rico.

"Unconditional surrender" had been the first demand made by General Shafter upon the Spanish commander at Santiago. *Terms of Surrender* Capitulation, with permission to withdraw from the city with the officers and men carrying their arms, had been the first proposition of General Toral. Each side yielded a little. Commissions were finally appointed to draw up articles for the "capitulation" of the Spaniards, General Toral having urged the use of the word "capitulation" rather than "surrender."

Under the terms of this agreement¹ General

¹ This agreement, as finally drawn up and signed by the Spanish and American commissioners, read : —

"Terms of the military convention for the capitulation of



MAJOR-GENERAL MILES.

Surrender of Santiago

Toral handed to General Shafter a roster of 22,789 men, to which several thousand were

the Spanish forces occupying the territory which constitutes the division of Santiago de Cuba, and described as follows : —

“ All that portion of the island of Cuba east of a line passing through Asseraderos, Dos Palmos, Cantoabajo, Escondida, Tanamo, and Aguilera ; said troops being in command of General José Toral :

“ Agreed upon by the undersigned commissioners, Brigadier-General Don Federico Escario, Lieutenant Colonel of Staff, Don Ventura Fontan, and as interpreter, Mr. Robert Mason, of the City of Santiago de Cuba, appointed by General Toral, commanding the Spanish forces, on behalf of the kingdom of Spain.

“ And Major-General Joseph Wheeler, U. S. V. ; Major-General H. W. Lawton, U. S. V., and First Lieutenant T. D. Miley, Second Artillery, A. D. C., appointed by General Shafter, commanding the American forces, on behalf of the United States.

“ 1. That all hostilities between the American and Spanish forces in this district shall absolutely and unequivocally cease.

“ 2. That this capitulation shall include all the forces and war material in said territory.

“ 3. That the United States agrees, with as little delay as possible, to transport all the Spanish troops in said district to the kingdom of Spain, the troops being embarked as far as possible at the port nearest the garrisons they now occupy.

“ 4. That the officers of the Spanish army be permitted to retain their side arms and both officers and private soldiers their personal property.

“ 5. That the Spanish authorities agree to remove or assist in removing all mines or other obstructions to navigation now in the harbor of Santiago and its mouth.

“ 6. That the commander of the Spanish forces deliver

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added later from the garrisons of the towns in the province of Santiago de Cuba. These troops were sent to Spain by the United States, a contract for their transportation being awarded to the *Compania Español Trasatlantica*. This company was not as prompt as it might have been in fulfilling its contract, and many of the

without delay a complete inventory of all arms and munitions of war of the Spanish forces in the above described district to the commander of the American forces, also a roster of said forces now in said district.

“7. That the commander of the Spanish forces on leaving said district is authorized to carry with him all military archives and records pertaining to the Spanish army now in said district.

“8. That all that portion of the Spanish forces known as volunteers, *mobilizados*, and *guerillas*, who wish to remain in the island of Cuba, are permitted to do so upon condition of delivering up their arms and taking a parole not to bear arms against the United States during the continuance of the present war between Spain and the United States.

“9. That the Spanish forces will march out at Santiago de Cuba with honors of war, depositing their arms thereafter at a point mutually agreed upon to await their disposition by the United States government, it being understood that the United States Commissioners will recommend that the Spanish soldier will return to Spain with the arms he so bravely defended.

“10. That the provisions of the foregoing instrument become operative immediately upon its being signed.

“Entered into this sixteenth day of July, eighteen hundred and ninety-eight, by the undersigned Commissioners, acting under instructions from their respective commanding generals and with the approbation of their respective governments.”

Surrender of Santiago

Spanish soldiers died from fever while awaiting transportation.

Under these articles, General Toral turned over more than ten thousand rifles and about ten million rounds of ammunition, together with some siege-guns. After the occupation of Santiago, American officers were sent to Guantanamo, Baracoa, and Sagua de Tanamo, and received the surrender of the garrisons there.

CHAPTER XLIV

SANTIAGO AN AMERICAN CITY

THE surrender of Santiago on the day following the signing the terms of capitulation furnished many picturesque scenes. Escorted by two troops of the Second Cavalry, General Shafter rode out toward the city. He was accompanied by Generals Wheeler, Lawton, Kent, Chaffee, Young, Sumner, Hawkins, Wood, Ludlow, and Breckinridge and their staffs.

General Toral and his staff, escorted by about one hundred infantrymen, came to meet *Toral's* them, and victor and vanquished came *Surrender* together about halfway between the American lines. As the two commanders neared each other they rode slightly in advance of their attending officers, and when within easy speaking distance drew rein simultaneously and raised their hats. Officers on both sides uncovered their heads, while the American cavalry escort deployed and presented sabres,

Santiago an American City

the Spanish infantry responding by presenting arms.

Salutations exchanged, General Shafter took from one of his aides the sword and spurs of the Spanish General Vara del Rey, who fell in defending El Caney, on July 1, and presented them to General Toral, with his compliments. General Toral, much affected, accepted them and warmly thanked General Shafter. The formal surrender followed.

"I deliver up the city and province of Santiago de Cuba into the authority of the United States," said General Toral, starting to offer his sword, but being instantly checked by General Shafter. The surrendered Spanish troops, emerging from the city, filed past General Toral, saluting him as they marched by to stack their arms where the Thirteenth Infantry was waiting to receive them.

Side by side General Shafter and General Toral rode into the city, where in the grand *Entrance into the City* reception hall of the governor's palace the city was formally turned over to the Americans. The Spanish Governor Ros and the other municipal officers and the venerable Archbishop of Santiago were presented to the American officers.

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At noon Sunday, July 17, the stars and stripes were raised on the governor's palace, the bands played the "Star Spangled Banner," and Captain Capron's battery fired a salute of twenty-one guns. Santiago had passed forever from the hands of Spain.

Only two unpleasant incidents occurred during the surrender. An American newspaper correspondent became involved in an untimely dispute with General Shafter, and attempted to strike him, — an offence for which he was imprisoned and later sent to the United States. The other incident was of a more serious character. General Calixto Garcia, according to his own statement, had General Shafter's pledge that the Americans and Cubans should enter Santiago together and occupy it jointly. The Cubans having failed to prevent General Escario entering the city, and being accused of looting, Shafter not only did not invite General Garcia to participate in the capitulation of Santiago, but positively forbade the Cubans entering the city. As a result, Garcia withdrew his forces from Santiago, resigned from his command, not returning to Santiago until long after Shafter had gone to the United States.

Santiago an American City

After the occupation of Santiago General McKibben was acting governor for several days.

General Brigadier-General Leonard Wood, formerly Colonel of the "Rough Riders,"
Wood as
Governor was then made governor of the city, and General Lawton was placed in command of all the American troops in Eastern Cuba, a department being created in the army known as the "Department of Santiago."

Prompt measures were taken to open up Santiago harbor to commerce, the duties were temporarily fixed at the minimum of the Spanish tariff, and before many days had passed business was again being transacted in the city in almost the usual volume.

General Wood took immediate steps to improve sanitary conditions in the city. He found offices for as many of the Cubans as he could well provide for, making General Castillo his assistant and counsel in arranging affairs with the Cubans. This course soon made him as popular even with General Garcia's adherents as General Shafter had been unpopular, and soon Santiago was a flourishing city of trade again. So able a governor did General Wood prove to be that it was not long before he was made governor of the district, and the first

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month of the new year found further advancement proffered him.

In the Spanish and American camps the conditions, while they remained there, were far from being as encouraging as in the city itself. Lack of transportation kept them there many weeks, exposed to malarial, typhoid, and yellow fever. *Horrors of the Camps* low fevers, and the death rate became enormous. The American officers united in a protest at having their men kept there inactive in a deadly climate, but before all the troops were removed many hundreds who had gone through the war unscathed by shot and shell perished from disease. To add to the horrors, several of the transports were not properly supplied and there was much suffering *en route* to the United States.

Several regiments of immunes — men who were supposed to be proof against the perils of the Cuban climate — were enlisted and sent to Santiago to form the permanent garrison in place of the Fifth Army Corps soldiers, but even among the immunes the mortality was high.

CHAPTER XLV

THE FLEET OF CAMARA

ALTHOUGH Spain had professed to have great hopes that Admiral Cervera would be successful in escaping from Santiago harbor, naval experts generally, including those in Madrid, realized that it was almost a hopeless task. The War Board in Madrid accordingly planned a counter move in the hope of striking a blow at the United States and at the same time withdrawing part of the strong force that had Admiral Cervera's fleet bottled in Santiago harbor.

This counter move was nothing less than the despatching of a fleet to the Philippines *Camara's* under command of Admiral Camara. *Squadron* In this fleet were the battle-ship "Pelayo" and the armored cruiser "Carlos V.," the "Osada," the "Patriota," the "Buenos Ayres," the "Isla de Panay," the "Rapido," the "Isla de Luzon," the "San Francisco," and the "San Ignace de Loyola." Of these vessels the only two to be at all feared as

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fighting craft were the "Pelayo" and the "Carlos V."

When it became rumored in the United States that this fleet was to proceed to the Philippines, the Naval War Board promptly planned an expedition against the coast of Spain. A squadron was made up, to be commanded by Commodore Watson, which it was intended to despatch first to the Canaries and then to the Spanish coast, the intention being thereafter to follow the fleet of Camara through the Suez Canal. In this fleet were included several of the strongest and swiftest of the American battle-ships and cruisers.

Great publicity was given to the intentions of the United States, no doubt with the view of deterring the Spanish admiral from carrying out his plans, for his departure would leave the coasts of Spain absolutely unprotected, except for land fortifications. Eventually the scheme of the United States was successful.

Admiral Camara, on arriving at Port Saïd, the entrance to the Suez Canal, delayed for two *Suez Canal* or three days. Efforts were made to *passed* purchase coal there, and a small quantity was obtained, despite the strict enforcement of the neutrality laws. In accord-

The Fleet of Camara

ance with these laws, when twenty-four hours had elapsed, he was notified that he must leave the neutral harbor of Port Saïd at once. He delayed a little longer, on the ground of making needed repairs. Part of Camara's fleet then returned to Spain. He then endeavored to proceed through the canal, but again there came a delay. The governors of the canal refused to accept a draft on the Bank of Spain for the canal dues. Camara finally paid the amount in coin and proceeded to Suez.

Charges were made not only for the ships themselves, but there was also a *per capita* charge for each man on board. This brought the total sum up to a large amount for a nation so poverty-stricken as Spain. This large sum having been paid, the United States could only believe that such an expenditure was made with the intent of proceeding to Manila. Preparations for sending Commodore Watson's fleet to Europe were accordingly hastened, and colliers were gotten together to accompany the American squadron across the Atlantic.

Hardly had Admiral Camara's fleet reached Suez when orders from Madrid arrived for it
Ordered to return to return to Spain. These orders undoubtedly were due to the fear in-

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spired in Spain by the active preparations for the departure of Commodore Watson's squadron. Admiral Camara, on the receipt of these orders, immediately headed his fleet for Spain, returning through the canal, and arriving at Port Saïd on Sunday, July 10, just one week after the destruction of Admiral Cervera's squadron at Santiago de Cuba.

This profitless venture on the part of Spain cost her one hundred and sixteen thousand dollars in canal dues alone. The ships reached Spain in a crippled condition. It was now realized by all parties in Spain that there was little or no chance for any further resistance to the Americans at sea. To the Spaniards, already disheartened by the return of Camara's squadron and the destruction of Cervera's, came the still more dispiriting news of the surrender of the army of General Toral at Santiago.

People and press began openly to advocate that Spain should sue for peace. The Pope brought great influence to bear to obtain a truce between the United States and Spain. It was broadly hinted that Spain was ready to hear on what terms the United States would agree to end the war.

The Fleet of Camara

The United States was not, however, at all anxious to end the war just yet. There was every indication that the popular loan provided for by Congress would be subscribed three times over.

With enormous funds at hand for war purposes, with an uncrippled fleet, with large forces of eager volunteers, the United States hastened to the occupation of Porto Rico and the establishment of a firmer footing in the Philippines, with a view to having her position all the stronger when the approaching peace, delineated in the war horizon in unmistakable signs, should become a fact.

CHAPTER XLVI

CAMPAIGN IN PORTO RICO

EARLY in the war the blockade of Cuban ports had been extended to include the principal port of the Spanish island of Porto Rico, San Juan. Admiral Sampson, with the cruiser "New York," the battle-ships "Indiana" and "Iowa," the monitors "Terror" and "Amphitrite," the cruisers "Montgomery" and "Detroit," and the torpedo boat "Porter," had bombarded the fortifications of the harbor for three hours on the morning of May 12.

During this bombardment the fortress of San Cristobal was somewhat damaged and *Houses in* several churches and private houses *Porto Rico* were struck by the American shells. Eight Spanish soldiers were killed and thirty-four wounded. On the American side, one seaman on the "New York" was killed and four wounded by a Spanish shell. Three of the crew of the "Iowa" were wounded, and a gunner's mate on the "Amphitrite" fell dead from heart failure beside his gun.

Campaign in Porto Rico

Though many of the residents of San Juan fled from the city in terror, fearing another bombardment, beyond maintaining a desultory blockade of the harbor, no steps to capture the city or the island were taken by the United States until after the fall of Santiago. When the campaign against Porto Rico did begin, it was carried on with energy. Even before General Toral had surrendered, Major-General Nelson A. Miles, the general commanding the United States Army, had started for Porto Rico. Within a few days thereafter nearly fifteen thousand troops had embarked or were ready to embark for Porto Rico from Tampa, Charleston, and Newport News. General Miles also took with him about 3,500 men from Santiago.

The War Department had planned that General Miles should make his first landing at Fajardo, on the north coast of the island. This fact had been published in the United States; and General Miles, considering this an imprudent policy, without informing the War Department of his intentions, made his first landing at Guanica, on the south coast, on July 26.

The "Gloucester" first entered the harbor and

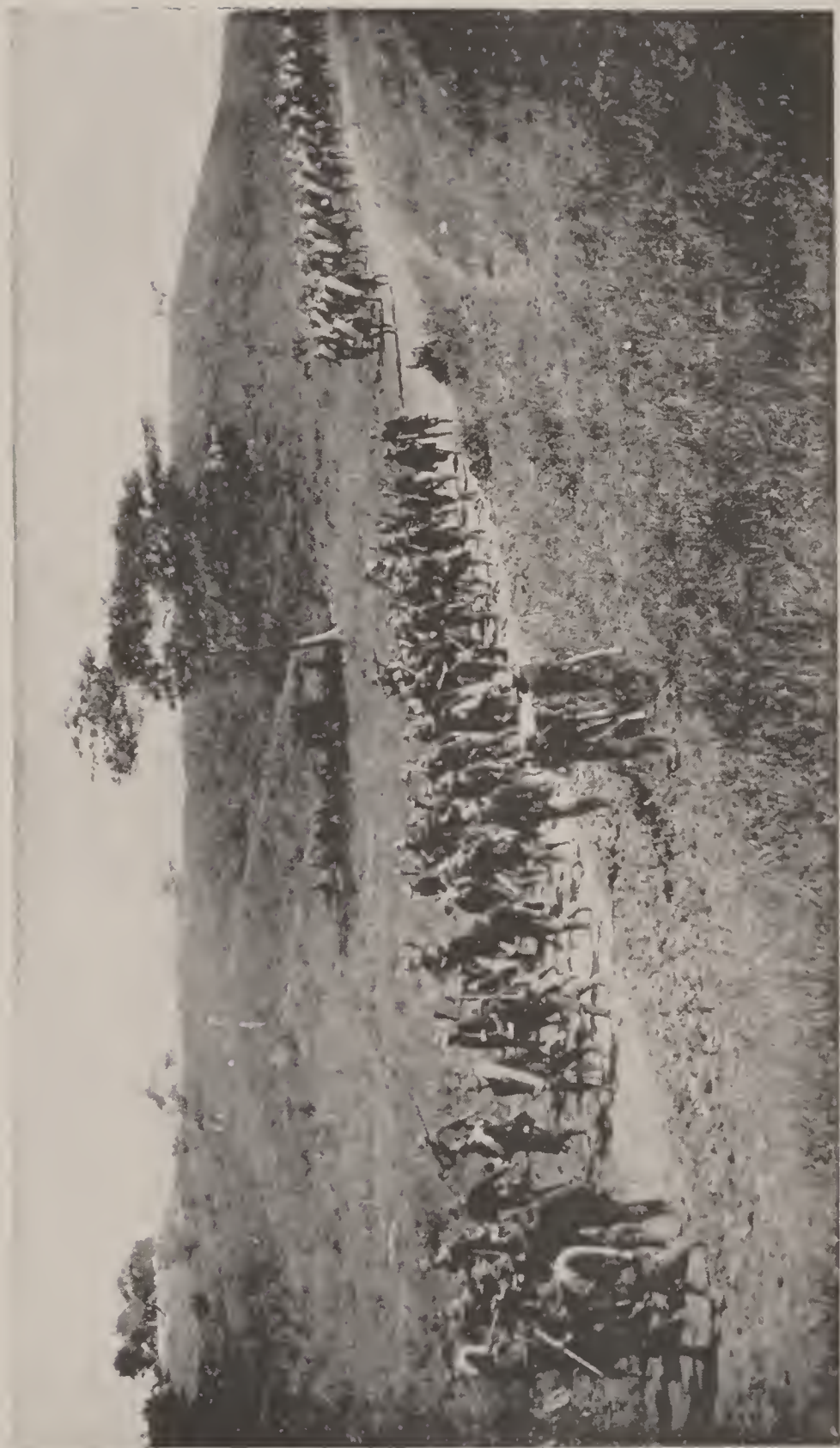
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fired a few shots ; but the resistance, as in most *Americans welcomed* of the other Porto Rican towns, was only nominal, and the American flag was soon raised over the city, amid the cheers of the populace. General Miles the next day issued a proclamation to the people of Porto Rico with the view of encouraging the good feeling already manifested.

Ponce, the second largest city on the island, surrendered a day or two after Guanica, the Spanish garrison having retreated to the mountains. Here, as at Guanica, the arrival of the American forces was greeted with glad cheers of "Vive Americanos !" The capture of Yauco,¹

¹ Typical of the feeling manifested by the Porto Ricans toward the Americans was this proclamation of the Mayor of Yauco: —

"Citizens: To-day the citizens of Porto Rico assist in one of her most beautiful feasts. The sun of America shines upon our mountains and valleys this day of July, 1898. It is a day of glorious remembrance for each son of this beloved isle, because for the first time there waves over it the flag of the stars planted in the name of the government of the United States by the Major-General of the American army, Señor Miles. Porto Ricans, we are, by the virtue of the miraculous intervention of the God of the Just, given back to the bosom of our mother America, in whose waters nature placed us as people of America. To her we are given back in the name of her government by General Miles, and we must send our most expressive salutation of generous affection through our conduct toward the valiant



AMERICAN TROOPS ON THE MARCH.

By permission of the New York Herald.

Campaign in Porto Rico

which followed, was more like the triumphal return of a home army than the entrance of a hostile one.

General Miles' forces nevertheless did not find their advance toward San Juan entirely without opposition. At Guayama and again at Arecibo, Fajardo, and Aibonito, the Spaniards offered some resistance, but in all the skirmishes in the island the American losses were light. There were in all only three privates of General Miles' army killed in Porto Rico, while the wounded comprised four officers and thirty-six men.

The signing of the peace protocol and the truce that followed found the forces of General Miles steadily advancing on San Juan from several different directions, and had hostilities lasted a few days longer there is little doubt that the city would have been forced to surrender.

troops, represented by distinguished officers and commanded by the illustrious General Miles.

“ Citizens, long live the government of the United States of America! Hail to their valiant troops! Hail, Porto Rico, always American!

“ *El Alcalde*, FRANCISCO MAGIA

“ YAUCO, PORTO RICO, United States of America.”

CHAPTER XLVII

THE FALL OF MANILA

AFFAIRS in the Philippines had meanwhile been rapidly approaching a crisis. Admiral Dewey, after the destruction of the Spanish fleet, held Manila Bay and Cavite, and awaited the arrival of land forces. An attempt on the part of some German war-ships to interfere with a party of the insurgents met with such a forcible protest from Admiral Dewey that the German fleet thereafter preserved strict neutrality. The German government promptly repudiated any intention to interfere with American affairs, and the incident was closed without serious result.

Major-General Merritt, commanding the American forces in the Philippines, arrived at *Merritt's* Cavite, in Manila Bay, on July 25. *Campaign* The insurgents under Aguinaldo had been waging desultory warfare on the Spaniards, and had gradually driven them into the city of Manila. Aguinaldo, encouraged by his successes, had proclaimed himself president of the Filipinos, assuming the powers of "dictator."

The Fall of Manila

Although there had been some co-operation between the United States fleet and the insurgents, with the arrival of General Merritt it was practically ended.

General Merritt promptly began pushing his troops forward toward Manila; and the Spaniards, noticing his active advance, on the night of July 31 attacked the American outposts with infantry and artillery, but were repulsed after some sharp fighting. The American advance was at this time commanded by General Greene. General MacArthur's brigade arrived on July 31, and these troops were at once hurried ashore to support General Greene.

General Merritt now had 8,500 men in position for attack, and he decided that the time for final assault had come. On August 7 a joint note was sent by General Merritt and Admiral Dewey to the Captain-General of the Philippines, notifying him to remove all non-combatants in Manila to a place of safety within forty-eight hours, as operations against the defences of Manila were about to begin.

General Augustin, who had been captain-general, when he found that the authorities in Madrid were not sending him any reinforcements, refused to be respon-

*Augustin
resigns*

History up to Date

sible either for the defence or surrender of the city of Manila, and resigned his office, being succeeded by General Fermin Jaudenes. General Jaudenes to the joint note replied that he had no place of safety for non-combatants.

A formal demand for the surrender of the city was then made on August 9. General Jaudenes replied that he could not surrender, but offered to consult the government in Madrid if time were allowed.

This request was refused, and on August 13 the American fleet and army began an attack on the city which met with only a nominal resistance from the Spaniards. After some little fighting the Spaniards raised a white flag, and within a few hours there had been signed articles of capitulation.¹

¹ The articles of capitulation were as follows : —

“The undersigned, having been appointed a commission to determine the details of the capitulation of the city and defences of Manila and its suburbs, and the Spanish forces stationed therein, in accordance with the agreement entered into the previous day by Major-General Wesley Merritt, United States Army, American Commander-in-chief in the Philippines, and his Excellency Don Fermin Jaudenes, Acting General-in-chief of the Spanish army in the Philippines, have agreed upon the following : —

“1. The Spanish troops, European and native, capitulate with the city and its defences, with all the honors of war, de-

The Fall of Manila

By the capitulation of Manila the Americans came into possession of thirteen thousand

positing their arms in the places designated by the authorities of the United States, and remaining in the quarters designated and under the orders of their officers, and subject to the control of the aforesaid United States authorities, until the conclusion of a treaty of peace between the two belligerent nations.

“All persons included in the capitulation remain at liberty, the officers remaining in their respective homes, which shall be respected as long as they observe the regulations prescribed for their government and the laws in force.

“2. Officers shall retain their side arms, horses, and private property.

“3. All public horses and public property of all kinds shall be turned over to staff officers designated by the United States.

“4. Complete returns in duplicate of men by organizations, and full lists of public property and stores, shall be rendered to the United States within ten days from this date.

“5. All questions relating to the repatriation of officers and men of the Spanish forces and of their families, and of the expenses which said repatriation may occasion, shall be referred to the government of the United States at Washington. Spanish families may leave Manila at any time convenient to them. The return of the arms surrendered by the Spanish forces shall take place when they evacuate the city or when the American army evacuates.

“6. Officers and men included in the capitulation shall be supplied by the United States, according to their rank, with rations and necessary aid, as though they were prisoners of war, until the conclusion of a treaty of peace between the United States and Spain. All the funds in the Spanish Treasury and all other public funds shall be turned over to the authorities of the United States.

“7. This city, its inhabitants, its churches and religious

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prisoners, twenty-two thousand arms, and Spanish property valued at nearly a million dollars. Three days after the city capitulated, advices were received from President McKinley that a truce had been proclaimed on August 12, the day before the city fell.

After the surrender of Manila, Aguinaldo, the insurgent leader, withdrew his troops and established his headquarters at Malolos, some sixty miles from Manila. General Merritt, in accordance with instructions from Washington, on August 30 departed for Paris to attend the conferences of the Spanish and American Peace Commissioners, leaving General Otis in command at Manila.

worship, its educational establishments, and its private property of all descriptions are placed under the special safeguard of the faith and honor of the American army.”

This document was signed by F. V. Greene, Brigadier-General of Volunteers, United States Army ; B. P. Lamberton, Captain, United States Navy ; Charles A. Whittier, Lieutenant-Colonel and Inspector-General ; E. H. Crowder, Lieutenant-Colonel and Judge Advocate ; Nicolas de la Petra, Auditor-General Excmo ; Carlos, Coronel de Ingenieros, and José, Coronel de Estado Major.

CHAPTER XLVIII

SPAIN SUES FOR PEACE

THE destruction of the fleets of Admiral Montojo and Admiral Cervera, the surrender of Santiago and the American advance on Porto Rico, left Spain with no hope of victory. That Spain should now sue for peace was openly urged by press, people, and cabinet in Madrid.

These views prevailed; and by the direction of the Spanish Minister for Foreign Affairs, M. Jules Cambon, the French Ambassador to the United States, who had been acting as Spain's representative in Washington, on Tuesday, July 26, presented to the President at the White House a message from the Spanish government, looking to the termination of the war and the settlement of the terms of peace. This note in substance read: —

“The government of the United States and the government of Spain are unhappily at war, as a result of the demand of the United States that Spain with-

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draw from the island of Cuba, which demand she refused to comply with. In the contest of arms which followed, Spain admits that she has been *Spain* worsted and that her sufferings as a result *admits her* are very great. She believes that the time *Defeat* has now come when she can properly ask the co-operation of the United States in terminating the war, and, therefore, asks to be furnished through the French Ambassador with a statement of the terms upon which the United States would be willing to make peace."

President McKinley's reply to this was that the matter was of such gravity that he wished to consult with his Cabinet before giving a reply. The reply was formulated several days later and communicated to the Spanish government through the French Ambassador. After some minor changes the demands of the United States were accepted by Spain.

As a result, on Friday, August 12, 1898, in the Cabinet room of the White House in *Signing of* Washington, a peace protocol was *the Protocol* signed in duplicate by William R. Day, Secretary of State, for the United States, and M. Jules Cambon, French Ambassador to the United States, for Spain. There were present at the signing, besides the President and the

Spain Sues for Peace

signers, M. Eugène Thiebaut, First Secretary of the French Embassy; John B. Moore, Assistant Secretary of State; A. A. Adeo, Second Assistant Secretary of State; and Thomas W. Cridler, Third Assistant Secretary of State.

The protocol provisions were: —

“ 1. That Spain will relinquish all claim of sovereignty over and title to Cuba.

“ 2. That Porto Rico and the other Spanish islands in the West Indies and an island in the Ladrones, to be selected by the United States, shall be ceded to the latter.

“ 3. That the United States will occupy and hold the city, bay, and harbor of Manila pending the conclusion of a treaty of peace, which shall determine the control, disposition, and government of the Philippines.

“ 4. That Cuba, Porto Rico, and the other Spanish islands in the West Indies shall be immediately evacuated, and that Commissioners appointed within ten days shall within thirty days from the signing of the protocol meet at Havana and San Juan respectively to arrange and execute the details of the evacuation.

“ 5. That the United States and Spain will each appoint not more than five Commissioners to negotiate and conclude a treaty of peace. The Commis-

History up to Date

sioners are to meet at Paris not later than the 1st of October, 1898.

“6. On the signing of the protocol, hostilities will be suspended, and notice to that effect will be given as soon as possible by each government to the commanders of its military and naval forces.”

Immediately upon the signing of the protocol, President McKinley issued a proclamation ordering a suspension of hostilities on the part of the United States.

Commissioners to arrange for the evacuation of Cuba and Porto Rico were speedily appointed, as provided in the protocol, *Evacuation* and October 1 found the Spanish *Commissions* troops being withdrawn from both the islands.

To represent her in the evacuation of Porto Rico, Spain appointed Major-General Ortega y Diaz, Commodore of first rank ; Vallarino y Carrasco ; and Judge Advocate Sanchez del Aguila y Leon. The United States representatives in Porto Rico were Major-General W. R. Brooke, who had been left in command of the United States forces there when Major-General Miles returned to the United States ; Rear-Admiral Winfield Scott Schley ; and General W. W. Gordon.

As Evacuation Commissioners in Cuba,

Spain Sues for Peace

Spain named Major-General Gonzales Parrado, second in command of the Spanish troops in the island; Marquis Montoro; and Rear-Admiral Pastor y Landero. The latter was unable to serve on account of ill health, and his place was filled by Rear-Admiral Manterola. The United States Evacuation Commissioners for Cuba were Major-General John C. Wade, Major-General M. C. Butler, and Rear-Admiral Sampson.

The selection of five commissioners to draw up a treaty of peace occasioned no little trouble *The Peace,* in Madrid, for most of the men prominent in Spain's public life refused to endanger their political future by accepting places on a commission which, at the best, could not expect to make terms at all pleasing to Spain. The Spanish Peace Commission, as finally completed, included only one man of international reputation, Señor Montero y Rios, President of the Senate, who was made chairman of the commission. The other Spanish Commissioners were General Cerero and Señors Abarzuza, Villa-Urrutia, and de Garnica.

In the commission which drew up a treaty of peace, the representatives of the United

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States were Judge William R. Day, of Ohio, who resigned as Secretary of State to head the commission; Senator George Gray, of Delaware; Senator W. P. Frye, of Maine; Senator Cushman K. Davis, of Minnesota; and Mr. Whitelaw Reid, of New York.

CHAPTER XLIX

OUTCOME OF THE WAR

THE war with Spain lasted not quite four months, yet the amount spent by the United States in that time was more than \$140,000,000. Up to August 31, the United States in an army of 265,000 men had lost only 2,624 by deaths from all causes, a little less than one per cent.

In Cuba the Americans had killed twenty-three officers and 237 men; in Porto Rico no *Americans'* officers and three men. In Cuba *Total Losses* the Americans had wounded 99 officers and 1,332 men; in Porto Rico four officers and thirty-six men, and in the Philippines ten officers and eighty-eight men. In addition to these, nine officers and eighty-two men died from wounds, thirty men were killed in accidents, and seventy-five officers and 2,150 men died from fevers and other diseases.

Two fleets of Spanish war-ships had been entirely destroyed, many smaller gunboats and auxiliary vessels had been sunk or captured, many merchant vessels taken as prizes, yet the American navy had not lost a single ship

History up to Date

nor more than a score of men in these victories that made Dewey, Sampson, and Schley rear-admirals, and advanced the captains under them several numbers in the navy lists.

Porto Rico passed into the hands of the United States on Nov. 18, 1898, the last of *Cession of* the Spanish troops departing within a *Porto Rico* very few days thereafter, leaving General Brooke in undisturbed possession as military commander, with General Frederick D. Grant in command of the district around San Juan, the capital. The first of the year 1899 found General Henry in command, General Brooke having been ordered home.

In Cuba evacuation was necessarily delayed a little longer, as the island contained a much larger number of Spanish troops, the transportation of which to Spain with only a limited number of troop-ships available took several months. But New Year's Day, 1899, found the island formally evacuated and Havana under the stars and stripes.

The war had resulted in the strengthening of the United States Navy by purchase of foreign men-of-war and by the addition of auxiliary vessels. The need of a coaling station in the Pacific for vessels going to Manila led to

Outcome of the War

the admission of the Hawaiian Islands as territory of the United States. The taking of Guam gave the United States still another coaling station nearer the Asiatic coast.

The final disposition of the Philippines had been left to the Peace Commission in Paris.

*The Philip-
pine Islands* When this Commission met, the Spanish members used considerable time endeavoring to have the enormous debts contracted by Spain in repressing rebellions on Cuba saddled on the island or guaranteed by the United States. Failing in this, they consented at last to have the part of the protocol relating to Cuba and Porto Rico embodied in the final treaty of peace.

President McKinley had at first been desirous of retaining only the city and bay of Manila, or possibly the island of Luzon, but the sentiment of the people in the United States was so strongly in favor of the retention of the entire group, and that course was so urgently counselled by military and naval commanders, that the President was led to accept this view. In compensation for the Philippines the American commissioners were instructed to offer to assume the Philippine debts Spain had contracted, for the permanent benefit of the islands.

CHAPTER L

THE TREATY OF PARIS

ON Christmas Eve, 1898, the five Peace Commissioners whom President McKinley had sent to Paris in September in accordance with the protocols signed in August, in the Executive Mansion in Washington, delivered over to the President a copy of a treaty of peace which they and the commissioners of Spain had signed in Paris two weeks before.

In this Treaty of Paris, signed Dec. 10, 1898, it was provided that:

Spain relinquished her sovereignty over *Provisions of* Cuba, which was to be occupied by *the Treaty* the United States for an indefinite period.

Spain ceded to the United States Porto Rico and the other islands under Spanish sovereignty in the West Indies, the island of Guam in the Ladrones, and the whole of the Philippine Archipelago, the United States having agreed to pay Spain within three months after

The Treaty of Paris

the ratification of the treaty the sum of twenty millions.

These were the principal provisions of the treaty, the other articles providing for the maintenance of personal and property rights, the adjudication of claims, the disposition of military property, and such other subjects as are to be found in every treaty of modern times.

The war that the United States had undertaken for the purpose of freeing the island of Cuba from Spanish rule, had accomplished much more, but it was not until after a diplomatic battle that in its intensity equalled the fiercest of the fighting at San Juan Hill or El Caney. When the joint commission first met in Paris, Montero Rios, for the Spaniards, insisted that, as a necessary preliminary to further negotiations, the United States land and naval forces be at once withdrawn from the Philippines.

Unable to carry this point, Señor Rios, step by step, fought every move the Americans made, tried to prove by every trick of logic known to diplomatism that the United States by occupying Cuba had become responsible for the enormous debt that Spain had

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saddled on the island for expenses incurred in putting down rebellions. When he saw that the Philippines must be yielded, he demanded that Spain be reimbursed for the money she had expended in fighting the Filipinos, and the sum of \$20,000,000 that the United States agreed to pay was in reality a compromise of this claim.

President McKinley and, for that matter, Judge Day, the head of the American commission, at the beginning of the negotiations had been in favor of demanding only the island of Luzon in the Philippines; but so universal was the cry throughout the United States for the retention of the whole archipelago, that the commission was instructed to make a demand to that effect upon the Spanish Commissioners that was virtually an ultimatum. Without a navy, with the nation apparently on the verge of a revolution, the Spanish Commissioners were forced to yield, after having three times threatened to break off negotiations altogether; and the document was signed that marked the beginning of a new and momentous epoch for the young republic of the West.

As by this treaty the once powerful king-

The Treaty of Paris

dom of Spain lost all that was left of the rich colonies she had once possessed in the American continents and islands, by this treaty the United States, hardly a century before only a colony itself, became the mother of colonies and a not-to-be-despised factor in the affairs of the Far East, where the Great Powers of Europe were with jealous eyes watching one another's efforts to gain new lands, new wealth, new power.

It was not, however, without some opposition, both external and internal, that the United States assumed control of the Philippines. The senate delayed ratifying the treaty until February 6, 1899, the vote then being fifty-seven to twenty-seven, barely over the two-thirds vote required.

That the needed votes were gained then was due to the fact that the Filipinos the day before had attacked the American troops at Manila in a vain effort to establish themselves as rulers of Manila. The line of battle extended for seventeen miles around the city, and several scores of American troops were killed and many more wounded, but the Filipinos were decisively routed, with losses in killed, wounded, and prisoners, aggregating thousands.

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THE TREATY OF PEACE WITH SPAIN

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AND HER MAJESTY THE QUEEN REGENT OF SPAIN, IN THE NAME OF HER AUGUST SON, DON ALFONSO XIII., desiring to end the state of war now existing between the two countries, have for that purpose appointed as plenipotentiaries :

THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES,
William R. Day, Cushman K. Davis, William P. Frye, George Gray, and Whitelaw Reid, citizens of the United States ;

AND HER MAJESTY THE QUEEN REGENT OF SPAIN,

Don Eugenio Montero Rios, President of the Senate ; Don Buenaventura de Abarzuza, Senator of the Kingdom and ex-Minister of the Crown ; Don José de Garnica, Deputy to the Cortes and Associate Justice of the Supreme Court ; Don Wenceslao Ramirez de Villa-Urrutia, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary at Brussels ; and Don Rafael Cerero, General of Division ;

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Who, having assembled in Paris, and having exchanged their full powers, which were found to be in due and proper form, have, after discussion of the matters before them, agreed upon the following articles :

ARTICLE I

Spain relinquishes all claim of sovereignty over and title to Cuba.

And as the island is, upon its evacuation by Spain, to be occupied by the United States, the United States will, so long as such occupation shall last, assume and discharge the obligations that may under international law result from the fact of its occupation, for the protection of life and property.

ARTICLE II

Spain cedes to the United States the island of Porto Rico and other islands now under Spanish sovereignty in the West Indies and the island of Guam in the Marianas or Ladrones.

ARTICLE III

Spain cedes to the United States the archipelago known as the Philippine Islands, and comprehending the islands lying within the following line :

A line running from west to east along or near the twentieth parallel of north latitude, and through the middle of the navigable channel of Bachi, from the

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one hundred and eighteenth (118th) to the one hundred and twenty-seventh (127th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich, thence along the one hundred and twenty-seventh (127th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich to the parallel of four degrees and forty-five minutes ($4^{\circ} 45'$) north latitude, thence along the parallel of four degrees and forty-five minutes ($4^{\circ} 45'$) north latitude to its intersection with the meridian of longitude one hundred and nineteen degrees and thirty-five minutes ($119^{\circ} 35'$) east of Greenwich, thence along the meridian of longitude one hundred and nineteen degrees and thirty-five minutes ($119^{\circ} 35'$) east of Greenwich, to the parallel of latitude seven degrees and forty minutes ($7^{\circ} 40'$) north, thence along the parallel of latitude seven degrees and forty minutes ($7^{\circ} 40'$) north to its intersection with the one hundred and sixteenth (116th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich, thence by a direct line to the intersection of the tenth (10th) degree parallel of north latitude with the one hundred and eighteenth (118th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich, and thence along the one hundred and eighteenth (118th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich to the point of beginning.

The United States will pay to Spain the sum of twenty million dollars (\$20,000,000) within three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty.

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ARTICLE IV

The United States will, for the term of ten years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, admit Spanish ships and merchandise to the ports of the Philippine Islands on the same terms as ships and merchandise of the United States.

ARTICLE V

The United States will, upon the signature of the present treaty, send back to Spain, at its own cost, the Spanish soldiers taken as prisoners of war on the capture of Manila by the American forces. The arms of the soldiers in question shall be restored to them.

Spain will, upon the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, proceed to evacuate the Philippines, as well as the island of Guam, on terms similar to those agreed upon by the Commissioners appointed to arrange for the evacuation of Porto Rico and other islands in the West Indies under the protocol of August 12, 1898, which is to continue in force till its provisions are completely executed.

The time within which the evacuation of the Philippine Islands and Guam shall be complete shall be fixed by the two governments. Stands of colors, uncaptured war-vessels, small arms, guns of all calibres, with their carriages and accessories, powder, ammunition, live stock, and materials and supplies of

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all kinds, belonging to the land and naval forces of Spain in the Philippines and Guam, remain the property of Spain. Pieces of heavy ordnance, exclusive of field artillery, in the fortifications and coast defences, shall remain in their emplacements for the term of six months, to be reckoned from the exchange of ratifications of the treaty; and the United States may, in the mean time, purchase such material from Spain, if a satisfactory agreement between the two governments on the subject shall be reached.

ARTICLE VI

Spain will, upon the signature of the present treaty, release all prisoners of war, and all persons detained or imprisoned for political offences, in connection with the insurrections in Cuba and the Philippines and the war with the United States.

Reciprocally the United States will release all persons made prisoners of war by the American forces, and will undertake to obtain the release of all Spanish prisoners in the hands of the insurgents in Cuba and the Philippines.

The government of the United States will at its own cost return to Spain, and the government of Spain will at its own cost return to the United States, Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines, according to the situation of their respective homes, prisoners released, or caused to be released by them, respectively, under this article.

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ARTICLE VII

The United States and Spain mutually relinquish all claims for indemnity, national and individual, of every kind, of either government, or of its citizens or subjects, against the other government, that may have arisen since the beginning of the late insurrection in Cuba and prior to the exchange of ratifications of the present treaty, including all claims for indemnity for the cost of the war.

The United States will adjudicate and settle the claims of its citizens against Spain relinquished in this article.

ARTICLE VIII

In conformity with the provisions of Articles I., II., and III., of this treaty, Spain relinquishes in Cuba, and cedes in Porto Rico and other islands in the West Indies, in the island of Guam, and in the Philippine Archipelago, all the buildings, wharves, barracks, forts, structures, public highways and other immovable property which, in conformity with law, belong to the public domain, and as such belong to the Crown of Spain.

And it is hereby declared that the relinquishment or cession, as the case may be, to which the preceding paragraph refers, cannot in any respect impair the property or rights which by law belong to the peaceful possession of property of all kinds, of provinces, municipalities, public or private establishments, eccle-

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siastical or civic bodies, or any other associations having legal capacity to acquire and possess property in the aforesaid territories renounced or ceded, or of private individuals, of whatsoever nationality such individuals may be.

The aforesaid relinquishment or cession, as the case may be, includes all documents exclusively referring to the sovereignty relinquished or ceded that may exist in the archives of the Peninsula. Where any document in such archives only in part relates to said sovereignty, a copy of such part will be furnished whenever it shall be requested. Like rules shall be reciprocally observed in favor of Spain in respect of documents in the archives of the islands above referred to.

In the aforesaid relinquishment or cession, as the case may be, are also included such rights as the Crown of Spain and its authorities possess in respect of the official archives and records, executive as well as judicial, in the islands above referred to, which relate to said islands or the rights and property of their inhabitants. Such archives and records shall be carefully preserved, and private persons shall without distinction have the right to require, in accordance with law, authenticated copies of the contracts, wills, and other instruments forming part of notarial protocols or files, or which may be contained in the executive or judicial archives, be the latter in Spain or in the islands aforesaid.

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ARTICLE IX

Spanish subjects, natives of the Peninsula, residing in the territory over which Spain by the present treaty relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty, may remain in such territory or may remove therefrom, retaining in either event all their rights of property, including the right to sell or dispose of such property or of its proceeds; and they shall also have the right to carry on their industry, commerce, and professions, being subject in respect thereof to such laws as are applicable to other foreigners. In case they remain in the territory they may preserve their allegiance to the Crown of Spain by making, before a court of record, within a year from the date of the exchange of ratifications of this treaty, a declaration of their decision to preserve such allegiance; in default of which declaration they shall be held to have renounced it and to have adopted the nationality of the territory in which they may reside.

The civil rights and political status of the native inhabitants of the territories hereby ceded to the United States shall be determined by the Congress.

ARTICLE X

The inhabitants of the territories over which Spain relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty shall be secured in the free exercise of their religion.

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ARTICLE XI

The Spaniards residing in the territories over which Spain by this treaty cedes or relinquishes her sovereignty shall be subject in matters civil as well as criminal to the jurisdiction of the courts of the country wherein they reside, pursuant to the ordinary laws governing the same; and they shall have the right to appear before such courts and to pursue the same course as citizens of the country to which the courts belong.

ARTICLE XII

Judicial proceedings pending at the time of the exchange of ratifications of this treaty in the territories over which Spain relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty shall be determined according to the following rules:

1. Judgments rendered either in civil suits between private individuals, or in criminal matters, before the date mentioned, and with respect to which there is no recourse or right of review under the Spanish law, shall be deemed to be final, and shall be executed in due form by competent authority in the territory within which such judgments should be carried out.

2. Civil suits between private individuals which may on the date mentioned be undetermined shall be prosecuted to judgment before the court in which

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they may then be pending, or in the court that may be substituted therefor.

3. Criminal actions pending on the date mentioned before the Supreme Court of Spain against citizens of the territory which by this treaty ceases to be Spanish shall continue under its jurisdiction until final judgment; but, such judgment having been rendered, the execution thereof shall be committed to the competent authority of the place in which the case arose.

ARTICLE XIII

The rights of property secured by copyrights and patents acquired by Spaniards in the Island de Cuba, and in Porto Rico, the Philippines, and other ceded territories, at the time of the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty, shall continue to be respected. Spanish scientific, literary, and artistic works, not subversive of public order in the territories in question, shall continue to be admitted free of duty into such territories, for the period of ten years, to be reckoned from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty.

ARTICLE XIV

Spain shall have the power to establish consular offices in the ports and places of the territories, the sovereignty over which has been either relinquished or ceded by the present treaty.

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ARTICLE XV

The government of each country will, for the term of ten years, accord to the merchant vessels of the other country the same treatment in respect of all port charges, including entrance and clearance dues, light dues and tonnage duties, as it accords to its own merchant vessels, not engaged in the coastwise trade.

This article may at any time be terminated on six months' notice given by either government to the other.

ARTICLE XVI

It is understood that any obligations assumed in this treaty by the United States with respect to Cuba are limited to the time of its occupancy thereof; but it will, upon the termination of such occupancy, advise any government established in the island to assume the same obligations.

ARTICLE XVII

The present treaty shall be ratified by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and by Her Majesty the Queen Regent of Spain; and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Washington within six months from the date hereof, or earlier if possible.

In faith whereof we, the respective plenipotentiaries, have signed this treaty and have hereunto affixed our seals.

Appendix

Done in duplicate at Paris, the tenth day of December, in the year of Our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ninety-eight.

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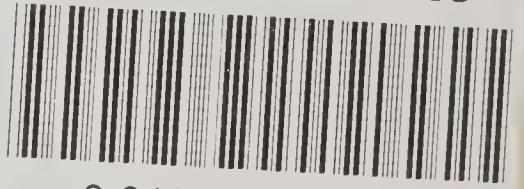
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